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Deanery of Higher Education
Faculty of Commerce
Business Administration

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The Effects of the Perceived Leadership Style
on Organizational Commitment
An Empirical Study on UNRWA Staff

Prepared by:
Hassan Othman Saqer

Supervised by:
Dr. Rushdy Wadi

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بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

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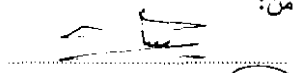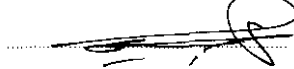
نتيجة الحكم على أطروحة ماجستير

بناءً على موافقة عمادة الدراسات العليا بالجامعة الإسلامية بغزة على تشكيل لجنة الحكم على أطروحة الباحث/ **حسن عثمان عبد الغني صقر** لنيل درجة الماجــستير فــي كليــة *التجـــارة/* قــسم إدارة الأعمــال وموضوعها:

"The Effects of the Perceived Leadership Style on Organizational Commitment, An Empirical Study on UNRWA Staff"

وبعد المناقشة العلنية التي تمت اليوم الأربعاء 25 جمادى الأولى 1430هــ، الموافق 2009/05/20م الساعة الواحدة ظهراً، اجتمعت لجنة الحكم على الأطروحة والمكونة من:

د. رشـــــدي وادي	مشرفاً ورئيساً	
د. سامي أبو الروس	مناقشاً داخلياً	
د. خليـــل النمروطي	مناقشاً داخلياً	

وبعد المداولة أوصت اللجنة بمنح الباحث درجة الماجستير في كلية *التجارة/* قسم إدارة الأعمال.

واللجنة إذ تمنحه هذه الدرجة فإنها توصيه بتقوى الله ولزوم طاعته وأن يسخر علمه في خدمة دينه ووطنه.

والله ولي التوفيق ،،،

عميد الدراسات العليا

د. زيـــاد إبراهيم مقداد

بـسـم الله الـرحمـن الـرحمن

(يـرفـــــع الله الذيــــن آمنــــوا منكم والذين أُتوا العلم درجــــات) صدق الله العظيم

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حديث شريف

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this research to the spirit of my father, whom I wished he could be with us, may Allah bless his soul; to my mother, whom I wish a healthy life.

I would also dedicate this study to my wife, who had supported and encouraged me all this long journey; my children Roa', Saja, Siraj, Ahmed, Sama and Farah.

To my wonderful, supportive family, brothers and sisters: Mohammed, Ibrahim, Omar, Said, Najah, Jamal and Jamela.

To the soaring educational institution, Islamic University –Gaza, that pursues admirable quality and ethical knowledge.

To my UNRWA colleagues; wishing this research would help us all to achieve a more productive, inspiring and innovative work environment towards excellence.

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Abstract

This research aimed at investigating the effect of leadership style, in view of the Full Range Leadership Theory that includes transformational, transactional and laissez-faire styles, on organizational commitment, as a multidimensional construct (affective, continuance and normative commitment).

589 UNRWA local staff, located in Gaza, West Bank, Jordan, Syria and Lebanon, completed a questionnaire of leadership style, based on Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, developed by (Avolio and Bass, 1995 & 1997), and Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, that was based on (Meyer and Allen, 1997) model.

The study concluded that no leadership style was dominant among UNRWA supervisors, as perceived by their subordinates; the organizational commitment was mild, where affective commitment goes slightly over normative and continuance commitment; and there was a positive relationship between the perceived leadership style and organizational commitment, however, it was stronger with transformational than transactional style, while laissez-faire leadership style showed negative correlations with organizational commitment. Also, the study found that there were varied patterns of differences, at $\alpha=0.05$ level, among the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment, due to their demographic characteristics (place of work, gender, age, marital status, family size, academic qualifications, experience, job grade and number of training courses).

The researcher presented some recommendations aimed at improvement of leaders' behaviour towards transformational styles, and enhancement of organizational commitment of UNRWA local staff. Also the study proposed an amendment to the Full Range Leadership Theory.

<u>ملخص الدراســـــــــة</u>

هدفت الدراسة إلى تحليل أثر الأنماط القيادية المدركة، في ضوء النظرية الكلية للقيادة والتي تشمل القيادة التحويلية، والإجرائية والترسلية، على الإلتزام التنظيمي، كمفهوم متعدد يتكون من الإلتزام العاطفي، و المستمر، والاخلاقي.

اشتملت عينة الدراسة على 589 موظف محلي من موظفي الأنروا في مناطق عملياتها الخمس (غزة– الضفة الغربية– الأردن – سوريا – لبنان)، والذين قاموا بتعبئة استبانة تحتوي على تحديد النمط القيادي، والذي قام بتطويره (Avolio and Bass, 1995 & 1997) ، وكذلك تحديد نوع ومستوى الإلتزام الوظيفي، المبنى على نموذج (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

وقد خلصت الدراسة إلى أنه لم يكن لدى المسؤولين في وكالة الغوث، من وجهة نظر المرؤوسين، نمط قيادي واضح، ضمن النظرية الكلية للقيادة. أما المستوى العام للإلتزام التنظيمي فكان ضعيفاً، وقد كان مستواه في الإلتزام العاطفي أكبر من كلٍ من الإلتزام الاخلاقي والمستمر. كذلك كانت هناك علاقة موجبة، بين النمط القيادي والإلتزام التنظيمي، وقد كانت العلاقة بين نمط القيادة التحويلية والإلتزام الوظيفي أقوي من تلك الخاصة بنمط القيادة الإجرائية. أما اسلوب القيادة الترسلية فكانت علاقته سلبية بالإلتزام التنظيمي. وقد أوضحت الدراسة أن هناك فروقاً (بأنماط متغيرة) في إدراك أفراد العينة للأنماط القيادية لدي رؤوسائهم ، وكذلك مستوى الإلتزام النتظيمي ، تُعزي للمتغيرات الشخصية (مكان العمل – الجنس – العمر – الحالة الإجتماعية– عدد أفراد العائلة – مستوى التعليم – عدد الدورات التدريبية).

قام الباحث بتقديم عدة توصيات تهدف إلى تحسين السلوك القيادي في الأنروا نحو اسلوب القيادة التحويلية، وتحسين مستوى الإلتزام التنظيمي. كذلك قدمت الدراسة مقترحاً لتعديل طفيف في نموذج النظرية الكلية للقيادة، وكذلك بعض الأفكار لدراسات مستقبلية.

Chapter-1 Research Framework

In this chapter, the researcher presented an overall view of the study, including research problem and questions, the study hypotheses, conceptual model, scope and delimitations, objectives of the study, importance and list of abbreviations used in the study.

1.1   Introduction

Human factors play an essential role in the organization's ability to grow and evolve continuously. One of these factors is the leadership behaviour of the management and how it can affect the employees towards organizational commitment and superior performance. The success of any organization is dependent upon the collection of individuals, including leaders and subordinates, and the amount of effort each individual puts into it. (Hughes, 2005).

Burns (1978) pointed out that leadership is one of the most observed phenomena on earth, but the least understood. It is often regarded as the most critical factor in the success or failure of an institution (Bass, 1990a). However, leaders must understand their impact on employees, and ultimately the organization. Leaders mobilize employees toward commitment (Gardner, 1990).

Whilst the interest in leadership is growing in its perceived importance to business, the interest in exploring its nature, and attempting to identify what makes for effective leadership, is by no means new (Nave 2005). Early leadership studies focused on trait and behaviour theories. Trait approach emphasizes attributes of leaders such as personality, motives, values and skills. However, researchers have realized that there is no trait would guarantee leadership success (Yukl, 2002, p.12).

Then researchers had turned to study the "behaviour" of the leaders and how this would affect their followers. The success is a joint interaction between them in accordant to the situation; this had led to emergence of "Situational" approach. Situational leadership theory as presented by Hersey and Blanchard which hypothesizes the importance of a manager's relationship orientation and task orientation in conjunction with effectiveness. However, they had modest success in identifying consistent relationships between patterns of leadership behaviour and group performance. (Robbins, 1997, p. 419).

New models began to materialize as researchers sought to identify characteristics of effective leaders; two prominent theories were: transactional and transformational leadership. Transactional leadership, which is based on exchange, uses reward or

punishment as incentives to manipulate followers into performing tasks (Avolio & Bass, 2002) and served as the basis for the development of transformational leadership (Avolio, 1999). Transformational leadership has been ascribed with effecting change by influencing values, attitudes, and behaviours of others (Avolio & Bass, 2002). Transformational leadership theory has undergone several revisions and expansions, where Avolio and Bass (1995) developed the Full Range Leadership Theory (FRLT). According to Antonakis, et al (2003), the FRLT considered the most recent model of transformational leadership[1]. The FRLT has been deemed more successful in determining effective leadership, and included five subscales for transformational, three subscales for transactional and one scale for laissez-faire leadership styles.

With the increased competition and organizational change, the issue of organizational commitment has become an increasingly common construct for inquiry because of the perceived impact a committed worker can have on the organization. In fact, it is believed that members in the organization are more likely to accomplish goals on behalf of their organizations (Cheng, 2003). Committed staff members would believe in the organization mission and vision and increase their ability to strive efforts to achieve the organization's objectives. Many theorists believed that organizational commitment has a substantial impact on employee turnover, productivity, satisfaction and success of both the individual as well as the organization. (Villanueva, 2003, pp.2-3). Studies approved that organizational commitment generates the desire to stay longer, doing their job happily which in turn has an impact on the job satisfaction and job advancement. (Chang, et al, 2007; Villanueva, 2003; Cheng, 2003; Stumpf 2003; Jahangir, 2003; Lawraence, 2000). It has a great impact on the organization outcomes (Wegner, 2004) and improves involvement, commitment and team spirit (Al-Ahmadi, 2004; and Innes, 2004; and Khashaly, 2003).

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[1]. To enrich the conceptual frame work of the study, the researcher had contacted Professors William Gardner and Robert Vecchio, who gratefully provided invaluable ideas and references. Email correspondence is attached in appendix-3.

1.2 Research Problem

During his tenure with UNRWA ([2]), and from the literature review, the researcher realized the influence leadership behaviour of supervisors, among other factors have on staff's organizational commitment. Therefore, the research main problem could be formulated in the following main question:

"What are the effects of the perceived leadership style of UNRWA Field/Department supervisors on their subordinates' organizational commitment?"

For better understanding the research problem; the following sub-questions were derived from the main question:

1.2.1 What is the dominant leadership style (transformational, transactional or laissez-faire) of the UNRWA's Field/ Department supervisors, as perceived by their subordinates?

1.2.2 What is the level and type of organizational commitment of UNRWA staff members?

1.2.3 Is there any relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment?

1.2.4 Are there any significant differences, at $\alpha=0.05$ level, of UNRWA staff's demographic characteristics and their perception of leadership style and organizational commitment?

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[2] . The researcher joined UNRWA in 1994; since year 2001, he has been working with the Human Resources Department, as Human Resources Officer -Compensation and Management.

1.3 Hypotheses

Figure 1.1 Study Hypotheses

Leadership Style

Organizational Commitment

- Transformational Leadership (IIB, IIA, IM, IS, IC)
- Transactional Leadership (CR, MbEA, MbEP)
- Laissez-Faire Leadership

- Affective Organizational Commitment
- Continuance Organizational Commitment
- Normative Organizational Commitment

Demographic Characteristics
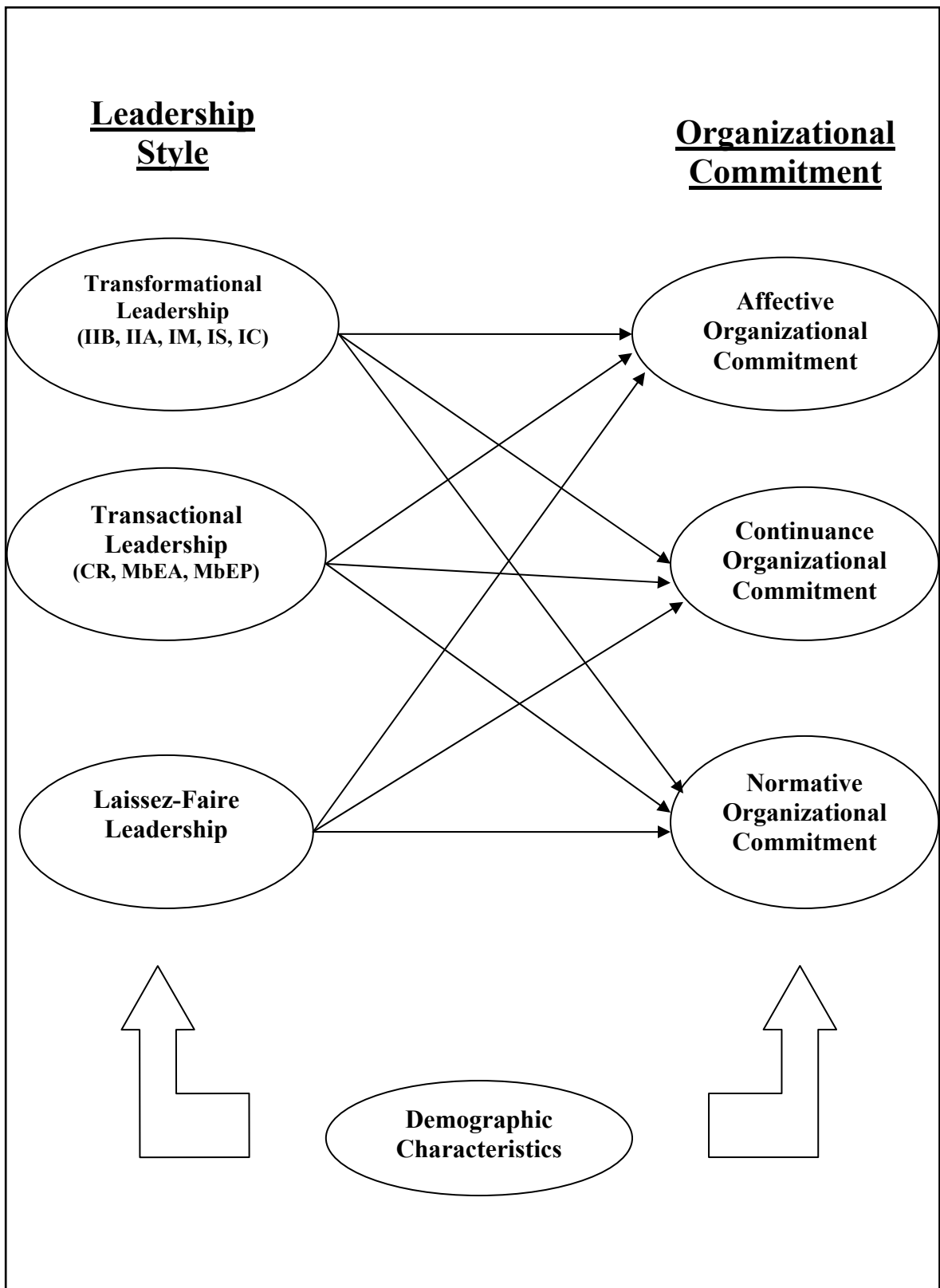
(Source: Conceptualized by researcher)

H1: There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the perceived transformational leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' organizational commitment. This hypothesis can lead to the following sub-hypotheses:

H1.1: There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the transformational leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' affective organizational commitment.

H1.2: There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the transformational leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' continuance organizational commitment.

H1.3: There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the transformational leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' normative organizational commitment.

H2: There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the perceived transactional leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' organizational commitment. This hypothesis can lead to the following sub-hypotheses:

H2.1: There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the transactional leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' affective organizational commitment.

H2.2: There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the transactional leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' continuance organizational commitment.

H2.3: There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the transactional leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' normative organizational commitment.

H3: There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the perceived laissez-faire leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates'

organizational commitment. This hypothesis can lead to the following sub-hypotheses:

H3.1: There is no significant relationship, at $\alpha=0.05$ level, between the laissez-faire leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' affective organizational commitment.

H3.2: There is no significant relationship, at $\alpha=0.05$ level, between the laissez-faire leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' continuance organizational commitment.

H3.3: There is no significant relationship, at $\alpha=0.05$ level, between the laissez-faire leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' normative organizational commitment.

H4. There is no significant difference, at $\alpha=0.05$ level, among the respondents' perception of leadership styles and their organizational commitment, due to demographic characteristics (gender, age, marital status, family size, academic qualifications, experience, job grade and number of training courses).

1.4 Research Conceptual Model

Figure (1.2) exemplifies the research conceptual model, where dependent and independent variables are as follows:

1.4.1 **Independent Variables**: includes two groups:

1.4.1.1 Leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire), with their nine factors.

1.4.1.2 Demographic characteristics: place of work, gender, age, marital status, family size, academic qualifications, experience, job grade and number of training courses.

1.4.2 **Dependent Variables**: are the Organizational Commitment, with its three dimensions: affective, continuance and normative.

Figure 1.2 Conceptual Model

Demographic Characteristics

Personal Characteristics
- **Place of work**
- **Gender**
- **Sex**
- **Marital Status**
- **Family Size**

Professional Characteristics
- **Academic qualifications**
- **Experience**
- **Job grade**
- **No. of training courses**

The perceived UNRWA's Leadership Style:

- **Idealized Influence –Behavior**
- **Idealized Influence – Attributed**
- **Inspirational Motivation**
- **Intellectual Stimulation**
- **Individualized Consideration**
- **Contingent Reward**
- **Management-by-Exception (Active)**
- **Management-by-Exception (Passive)**
- **Laissez Faire**

Organizational Commitment

- **Affective Commitment**
- **Continuance Commitment**
- **Normative Commitment**

(Source: Conceptualized by researcher)

8

1.5   Scope of the Study

This study aimed at defining the leadership style, based on the full-range leadership theory, for UNRWA's Field/ Department supervisors as perceived by their subordinates; and the effect of this perception on their organizational commitment. UNRWA local staff in the agency's five fields was the geographical scope, where the year 2008, was the time border.

1.6   Research Objectives

1.6.1   Recognizing the dominant leadership style (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) used by the UNRWA's Field / Department supervisors as perceived by their subordinates

1.6.2   Recognizing the level and type of organizational commitment (affective, continuance and normative) of the UNRWA staff.

1.6.3   Indentifying and analysing the relationship between leadership style (Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-Faire) and the three types of organizational commitment (affective, continuance and normative).

1.6.4   Analysing the relationship of UNRWA staff's demographic characteristics correlation with the perceived leadership style, and organizational commitment.

1.6.5   Proposing recommendations to improve the leadership behaviour and ultimately the level of organizational commitment of UNRWA staff.

1.7   Importance of the study

The study aimed at exploring a very dynamic factor in organization's success; whether business, governmental or non-governmental organization. Leadership has remarkable effects on the human resources behaviour towards attaining the organization's objectives through many practices and especially their organizational commitment (Brown, 2003).

The researcher conducted the empirical part on UNRWA's local staff ([1]), considering the major role it has on the life of Palestine refugees. Not only does UNRWA provide humanitarian assistance (Education, Health & Relief), it is one of the major non-governmental employers in the region operating and providing its services to Palestine refugees in Gaza Strip, West Bank, Jordan, Syria and Lebanon. It launched, recently Organizational Development process (OD) ([2]), where it is believed that transformational leadership style is particularly effective in such environment characterized by change, uncertainty, and stress. Transformational leaders visualize a future different than the current status and inspire subordinates to work with them to achieve that new future (Vera & Crossan, 2004).

The results of this study would provide UNRWA's administration ([3]) of the prominent leadership style, level of commitment and the correlation between them, together with guidelines were UNRWA need to enhance and were it has to invest, in order to improve and get highly committed staff with stable, productive and creative work environment, that all contribute to OD success. These improvement and success would benefit UNRWA staff and ultimately local community – clients – who receives its services.

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[1] . Appendix-1 provides a brief note on UNRWA.

[2] . In 2007, UNRWA had launched a comprehensive Organizational Development (OD) initiative designed to strengthen and sustain the Agency's capacity for programme management and delivery. A brief detail is in apprendix-1.

[3] . Involvement and agreement of the Commissioner General Office (the highest authority of UNRWA), is attached in appendix-2.

1.8 List of Abbreviations

- UNRWA: United Nations Agency for Work and Relief Palestine Refugees.

- OD : Organizational Development initiative that UNRWA launched in 2007.

- TF : Transformational Leadership Style

- TA : Transactional Leadership Style

- LF : Laissez-faire Leadership Style

- IIB : Idealized Influence (Behaviour)

- IIA : Idealized Influence (Attributed)

- IS : Intellectual Stimulation

- IM : Inspirational Motivation

- IC : Individual Consideration

- CR : Contingent Reward

- MbEA : Management-by-Exception (Active)

- MbEP : Management-by-Exception (Passive)

- OC : Organizational Commitment

- MLQ : Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (developed by Avolio & Bass, 1995, 1997)

- OCQ : Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (developed by Meyer & Allen, 1997.

Chapter two: Literature Review

In this chapter the researcher built up a theoretical framework that addresses the major aspects of the study. The researcher aimed at identifying leadership style theories through a revision of trait, behavioural and situational leadership theories, stating the difficulties opposed to each one, arriving at the most contemporary theory – the full-range leadership theory, developed by Avolio and Bass, 1995 and 1997. Then to be acquainted with organizational commitment concept as multidimensional construct, the researcher studied Meyer & Allen, 1997, model.

Section one: Leadership Concept

2.1.1 Introduction

The shift towards recognizing the importance of human capital in industrial age has led companies, and organizations, to change their paradigms about people management. Most organizations no longer see employees as a resource whose primary function is to provide goods and services, but rather are seen as critical to their capability of providing quality services (Farzad, 2006, p. 12) and their ability to grow and evolve continuously.

The success of any organization is dependent upon the collection of individuals, including leaders and subordinates, and the amount of effort each individual puts into it. To understand organizational effectiveness, many researchers and practitioners have developed various studies to determine theories regarding leadership, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. (Cheng, 2003, p. 1).

In their review of literature, Wallace and Weese found that ineffective leadership to be "the major cause of declining industrial productivity and a downward positioning of North American corporations on a global scale" (Wallace & Weese, 1995, p. 182).

One reason for examining the leadership style is because research can help identify critical skills needed by leaders in today's world, where effective leadership can be the key success in many organizations. While examining the impact of leader behaviour on role stress characteristics and ultimately on organizational commitment in a large manufacturing cooperation in Midwest, Dale & Fox (2008) found a positive linkage between leader style and organizational commitment. They concluded that when subordinates perceive that the supervisor exhibits a high level of initiating structure, the supervisor is formalizing the work environment or providing formal rules and procedures for employees to follow. As a result employees perceive higher felt responsibility and thus have higher affective commitment.

With the increased competition and organizational change, the issue of organizational commitment has become an increasingly common construct for inquiry because of the perceived impact a committed worker can have on the organization. In fact, it is believed that members in the organization are more likely to accomplish goals on behalf of their organizations. Many theorists believed that organizational commitment has a substantial impact on employee turnover, productivity, satisfaction and success of both

the individual as well as the organization. (Villanueva, 2003, pp. 2-3). In a study involving customer contact personnel, Emery and Baker, stated that managers should understand the relationships between different types of leadership behaviours and customer contact personnel' organizational commitment" in order to reduce the potential for misunderstandings and possible undesirable behaviour by employees, which can lead to dissatisfaction and higher turnover rate. (Emery & Baker, 2007).

2.1.2 Definition of Leadership

Leadership is a subject that has long excited interest among people. The term connotes images of powerful, dynamic individuals who command victorious armies, direct corporate empires from top gleaming skyscrapers, or share the course of nations (Yukl, 2002, p. 1). Burns has written, "Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth" (Burns, 1978, p. 2). From the beginning of civilization, history has been concerned with the study of its leaders and leadership still an area of active inquiry. Indeed, leadership is often regarded as the single most critical factor in the success or failure of institutions (Bass, 1990a).

The discussion of leadership as a process may have been originated by Machiavelli in the sixteenth century (Smith, et al, 1989). However, a more systematic analysis of leadership, add Smith et al, may have only been advanced by Max Weber in early last century. For Weber (1946) leadership rested in three possible sources ('ideal-types') of authority: charismatic authority, reflected personal characteristics; traditional authority, referred to compliance with norms and forms of conduct; and legal authority, which resulted from functional 'duty of office'. Since Weber, research on leadership has developed more systematically giving way to an array of theoretical perspectives and conceptual definitions (Bass, 1990a; Yukl, 2002).

The study of leadership began in the twentieth century was initially concerned with leader effectiveness (Yukl, 2002). Researchers define leadership according to individual perspectives; Stodgill (1974) concluded that there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept. (Lok, 2001).

Leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behaviour, influence, interaction patterns, role relationships, and occupation of an administrative position (Yukl, 2002, p.2). Table (2.1) shows some representative definitions.

Table 2.1 Leadership Definition

No.	Leadership Definition
1.	Leadership is "the influence increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization". (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 528).
2.	Leadership is exercised when persons mobilize institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers. (Burns, 1978, p. 18).
3.	Leadership is the process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose" (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990, p. 281).
4.	Leadership is the process of influencing others to achieve organizational goals. (Bartol & Martin, 1998, p. 415).
5.	Leadership is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization. (House et al, 1999: p.184).
6.	Leadership is a special case of interpersonal influence that gets an individual or group to do what the leader or manager wants to be done. (Schermerhorn, 2000, p287).
7.	Leadership can be defined as the nature of the influencing process – and its resultant outcomes – that occurs between a leader and followers and how this influencing process is explained by the leader's dispositional characteristics, and behaviours, follower perceptions and attributions of the leader, and the context in which the influencing process occurs. (Antonakis, et al 2004, p.5)
8.	Leadership is a dynamic process, where leaders mobilize others to get extraordinary things done. To do so, leaders engage five practices: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart. (Kouses and Posner, 2007, p.14)

Despite numerous definitions of leadership, a frequently cited component is the concept of "influence". Tannebaum and Massarik support the notion of influence when defining

leadership as "interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specialized goal or goals" (Stumpf, 2003).

Burns explains that leadership is different than power, noting that "to control things-tools, mineral resources, money, energy- is an act of power, not leadership, for things have no motives. Power wielders may treat people as things; leaders may not" (Burns, 1978, p. 18).

Reviewing the listed definition, table (2.1), exposed that (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Bartol & Martin, 1998; and House et al, 1999) explained the importance of influence factor; while (Burns, 1978) emphasized the need to arouse, engage and stratify the motives of followers. (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990) added another dimension of meaningful direction and purpose to collective efforts, though the authors did not include the relationship between leaders and followers. On the other hand (Antonakis, et al, 2004) added to the influencing process the relationship between leaders and followers, and how this influencing process is explained by the leaders' characteristics and behaviours, though the authors missed the objectives. (Kouses and Posner, 2007) included the dynamic process, mobilizing others to get extraordinary things done, however, missed the perception of followers.

Considering all related factors to leadership, the researcher may propose that "leadership is dyadic and dynamic process, where leaders understand and professionally influence followers to transcend self-interest for the greater good of the organization, through motivating, inspiring a shared vision, and supporting higher level of need of the followers; and defining a competent rewarding system, so as achieve the challenging organizational goals, effectively and efficiently, through collective efforts".

2.1.3 A "Manager" versus A "Leader"

Controversy has arisen over whether leaders are different from managers or they are the same; one opinion argues that the role of management is to promote stability or to enable the organization to run smoothly, whereas the role of leadership is to promote adaptive or useful changes. (Schermerhorn, et al, 2000, p. 286). Leadership is regarded as the most critical factor in the success or failure of an institution (Bass, 1990a). Leaders must understand their impact on employees, and ultimately the organization.

Antonakis et al. consider leadership to be "purpose driven, resulting in change based on values, ideals, vision, symbols, and emotional exchanges" and "management is objectives driven, resulting in stability based on rationality, bureaucratic means, and the

fulfilment of contractual obligations" (2004, p. 5). This is an interesting contrast: leadership is arguably based on purpose, change, and emotions; in contrast management is based on objectives, stability, and rationality. In specific, what kind of change are they referring to? If their notion of leadership-driven change is defined as managerial change, then it may be a kind of change that is objective and guided towards social stability. If their notion of leadership driven change is defined as ideals-emotion change, then it may be a kind of change that is subjective and guided towards social change. Table (2.2) defines some differences between the two concepts:

Table 2.2 Comparison between Leaders and Managers

Leaders	Managers
Leaders are the heart of an organization.	Managers are the brain of an organization.
Motivate, encourage, and work with people	Establish systems
Create a vision and set a direction, and sharing with followers	Create rules and operational procedures.
Align people based on their knowledge, abilities and personality.	Are a task-oriented and often not people-oriented.
Ask how and when	Asks what and why
Take you to a new place	Take care of where you are
Wonder that if the problem set in a new environment might require a different solution.	Think that a successful solution to a management problem can be used again.
They write business plans, set budgets and monitor progress.	They get organizations and people to change.
Do things right	Do the right thing

Source: (Colvard, 2009; and Adayana[1], 2009)

This raises a concern of another level; how do leadership and management occur in practice? How agents act and how these actions may be conceptualized whether as leadership or as management. There is a fine line dividing both. It was noted that literature reviews on leadership studies tend to include works adopting positivist views, which in fact have dominated the field of management studies in the West (Yukl, 2002). We can, therefore, conclude that leaders turn vision into action, while managers complete tasks.

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[1] . Adayana is a specialized company in training and consultancy, located in Indianapolis, USA, that had a training contract with UNRWA.

Of course the management function can include problem solving and facilitating meetings as well as the traditional tasks; however, it is not necessary for the same person in a group to exercise all these tasks. Different people can take on parts of the management function. Some of them can do the planning, another person can do budgeting, while a third team member can monitor quality. The team as a whole can share responsibility for meeting performance targets (Maccoby, 2000, p. 57).

It is worth noting, however, that Managers provide leadership and leaders perform management functions, but managers typically don't perform the unique functions of leaders. (Colvard, 2009).

Nevertheless, the question that may arise: are leaders and managers both essential for an organization? Actually, yes: both are essential for an organization's prosperity. While leaders develop the vision, mangers carry out the vision. Managers should therefore acknowledge the importance of the leadership component of their work and be developed to become leaders who achieve goals (Raubenheimer, 2004).

Section two: Back ground of Leadership Theories

2.2.1 Introduction

The leadership research in the twentieth century developed mainly under the following schools: trait school, focused on leaders' dispositions; behavioural school, concerned with leaders' behaviours; contingency school, focused on leadership contingencies; relational school, considered leader-follower relations; sceptics school, questioned the existence and need of leadership; information-processing school, focused on cognition; and the neo-charismatic or transformational school which, in contrast with all previous schools, is not concerned in transactions but in transformations, in specific, with transforming the interests of the followers from being self-centred to being group-centred (Antonakis et al., 2004, pp. 6-11). In addition, contemporary leadership studies are also interested in issues reflecting broader societal and context issues such as hierarchy, gender, organizational characteristics, ethics, cognition and intelligence, and even suggesting the integration hybridization of leadership theories (Antonakis et al., 2004).

2.2.2 **Trait Theory**

Early studies analysed leadership based on hereditary attributes (Bass, 1990a) and compared traits of leaders with those of followers. Trait approach emphasizes attributes of leaders such as personality, motives, values and skills. By identifying specific traits or characteristics of leaders, one could distinguish a leader from a follower (Hughes, 2005, p. 25).

Research concerning trait theory concentrated on the following factors: (a) physical factors such as age, height, weight, physique, health, and appearance; (b) ability factors such as fluency of speech, tone of voice, academic performance, intelligence, judgment and decision, insight, and initiative; and (c) personality features such as integrity, emotional control, self confidence, and popularity (Bass, 1990a; Bryman,1986). According to this theory, an individual must possess these traits or characteristics in order to assume leadership.

Seeking to ascertain if trait theory accurately predicted leadership potential, Mann (1959) had reviewed trait studies, and reported that the foundation of trait theory lacked validity. Traits reported as being crucial to effective leadership in one study were not validated in others. (Hughes, 2005, p 26).

Stogdill (1974) completed a second review of trait leadership research that included an additional 163 studies that were conducted from 1949 to 1970. This review identified factors associated with energy, age, status, mobility, education and intelligence as being able to separate effective leaders from ineffective leaders. According to Stogdill (1974), improved measurement techniques and methodology lead to the identification of these traits. However, Stogdill (1974) surmised that trait theory research produced confusing results because a combination of traits proved effective in some groups of leaders, while they were ineffective in others. Therefore, Stogdill concluded that leadership requires more than just the study of people, but also the study of situations. (Hughes, 2005, p26).

Many other researchers, also, have realized that there is no trait would guarantee leadership success; and the attributes are related to leadership behaviour and effectiveness. (Yukle, 2002, p.12).

Mullins (2008) added two further limitations to trait approach:

♦   There is bound to be some subjective judgment in determining who is regarded as a "good" or "successful" leader.

♦   The list of possible traits tends would be very long and there is not always agreement on the most important.

Even if it were possible to identify an agreed list of more specific qualities, this would provide little explanation of the nature of leadership. It would do little to help in the development and training of future leaders (Mullins, 2008, p310).

2.2.3 **Behavioural Theories**

Failure of the trait theory led to further research that focused on behavioural styles of leadership. Behavioural theories emerged during World War II because trait research had failed to explain leader effectiveness (Bryman, 1986).

Behavioural leadership proposed that behaviour of the leader impacted work and follower effectiveness. This era of research focused on leadership behaviour as a mean of identifying the best way to lead. Under this approach, many studies were carried out to support this theory, majorly:

Iowa State University Studies

Studies conducted during the 1930s at Iowa State University identified three leadership styles: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire (Bryman, 1986). According to Daft (1999) an autocratic leader is one who tends to centralize authority and derive power from position, control of rewards, and coercions.

A democratic leader delegates authority to others, encourages participation, relies on subordinates' knowledge for completion of tasks, and depends on subordinate respect for influence" (Daft, 1999, p. 69). Laissez-faire is the absence or avoidance of leadership and has been labelled the most ineffective style (Bass, 1990a).

Ohio State Leadership Studies

The Ohio State studies were viewed as influential because the research focused on activities of leaders, instead of traits (Bryman, 1986). Through this research, the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire was developed. Results of the Ohio State studies indicated two major dimensions of leadership behaviour, labelled "consideration" and "initiating structure", (Mullins, 2008, p.312) that could be defined as follows:

1. Consideration reflects the extent to which the leader establishes trust, mutual respect and rapport with the group. This dimension is associated with two-way communication, participation and the human relations approach to leadership.

2. Initiating structure reflects the extent to which the leader defines and consolidates group interactions towards attainment of formal goals and organizes group activities. This dimension is associated with efforts to achieve organizational goals.

The two dimensions of leadership were mutually inclusive and together created four types of leadership:

- Quadrant I: High consideration and High initiating structure;
- Quadrant II: Low consideration and High initiating structure;
- Quadrant III: Low consideration and Low initiating structure; and
- Quadrant IV: High consideration and Low initiating structure. (Mullins, 2008).

Quadrant (I) became the focus of researchers as the combination of high consideration and structural qualities was thought to be the most advantageous (Dale & Fox, 2008).

However, these pursuits soon proved disappointing as the contingency aspect of the model cancels the success of the style and subsequent development of a universal leadership style (Hughes, 2005, p. 28).

University of Michigan Studies

Leadership research during the 1940s conducted at the University of Michigan compared the behaviour of effective leaders with ineffective leaders (Leftwich, 2001). These studies resulted in the development of two types of leadership behaviour (Bryman, 1986). Employee-cantered leaders focus on the individual needs of followers, while job-centred leaders direct activities toward efficiency by focusing on reaching task goals and facilitating the structure of tasks (Leftwich, 2001).

Although the employee-centred and job-centred styles of leadership correspond to the Ohio State studies concepts of consideration and initiating structure, the Michigan studies concluded that leaders used one type of leadership and did not change styles depending on employee competency. (Hughes, 2004, p.29).

The two dimensional approach led to the interesting possibility that a leader might be able to place high emphasis on task issues and still promote high levels of subordinate satisfaction by simultaneously exhibiting consideration behaviour. While initial studies supported the idea that a leader exhibiting both high initiating structure and high consideration would produce the best results, the notion of the great high-high leader was later pronounced a myth; it was too simplistic (Bartol & Martin, 1998, p. 421).

Managerial Grid

One popularized outgrowth of the emphasis on leader behaviour aimed at both task and people issues is the Managerial Grid, developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton. (Blake & Mouton,1985, pp. 10-11)

The foundation of the theory is a contrast between two approaches to the managerial role: (a) concern for production and (b) concern for people (Bryman, 1986). Blake and Mouton believed that both concerns are essential ingredients of effective management and each is conceptualized as a nine-point scale, thus producing eighty-one possible combinations of managerial behaviour.

The following scale figure (2.1) plots the managerial grid on a scale from one to nine and divides them into quadrants. The grid is composed of five categories that are based on concern for production and concern for people (Bryman, 1986). The categories are:

1. Impoverished management (1,1) is characterized by low scores on both dimensions – production and people, a context in which conflict is likely. The leader maintains low involvement with people and minimal communication.

2. Country club management (1,9) has a high concern for people and a low concern for production. Emphasis is on maintaining friendly relationships within a harmonious work environment.

3. Middle-of-the-road management (5,5): is concerned with both people and production; it is possible to balance work and morale.

4. Team management (9,9) promotes a high degree of concern for both people and production. Followers are involved in the planning and execution of work.

5. Task management (9,1): is concerned with production and views employees as suppliers of labour who must be controlled and directed.

Figure 2.1 The Managerial Grid

1,9 Country Club Manager Thoutful attention to needs of people for satisfyinjg relationships leades to a compfrotable friendly orgainzation atmosphere and work tempo.		**9,9 Team Management** Work Accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a common stake "in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.
	5,5 Organization Person managment Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory levle.	
1,1 Impoverished Management Extertion of minimum effort to get required wrok done is appropriate to sustian organization membership.		**9,1 Authority-Obedience** Efficiency in operations results from arraging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

Concern for People (vertical axis, High at top, Low at bottom, scale 1–9)

Concern for Production (horizontal axis, Low to High, scale 1–9)

(Source: Blake and Mouton, "*The Managerial Grid*", Gulf Publishing, Houston, 1985, p12).

Bloisi et al, criticized the Grid model concluded that most of the researches that support the Grid model have been based largely on the interpretation of case studies. Empirical research has failed to show that a (9,9) leadership style is superior, as the situation, group members and task all impact on styles of leadership. (Bloisi, et al, 2007, p. 657). They further added that "although useful [Grid theory] for identifying and classifying managerial styles, it does not tell us why a manager fails, for this we would need to look at the underlying causes, such as the personality of leader and followers, and the situation. (Bloisi, et al, 2007, p. 658).

2.2.4 Contingency Theories

With the modest success in identifying consistent relationships between patterns of leadership behaviour and group performance, the field of leadership was ready for a new paradigm (Chemers, 1997, p. 28). It became increasingly clear to those who were studying the leadership that the predicting of leadership success was more complex that isolating a few traits or preferable behaviours; this led to focus on situational influences. (Robbins, 1997, p. 419).

Contingency theories tried to predict which types of leadership style will be most effective in different types of situations (Holda, 1995). Contingency approaches hypothesize that there are no universally acceptable styles of leadership. A particular leadership style may prove valid in one situation, yet ineffective in another.

Therefore, discrete factors in the situation influence leadership. "Leadership must change with the situation – or the situation must change to accommodate the kind of leadership exercised" (Fairholm, 1998, p. 53, cited in Hughes, 2005).

Many studies have attempted to isolate critical situational factors that affect leadership effectiveness including the degree of structure in the task being performed, the quality of leader-member relations, the leader's position power, subordinates' role clarity, group norms, information availability, subordinate acceptance of leaders' decisions, and subordinate maturity (Howell, Dorfman, and Kerr, 1986, pp. 88-102).

The models of contingency theory discussed include Fiedler's Contingency Model, House and Mitchell's path-goal theory, Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership theory, and Vroom and Yetton's contingency model.

2.2.4.1 Fiedler's Contingency Model

The first comprehensive contingency model for leadership was developed by Fred Fielder, where he proposes that effective group performance depends on the proper match between the leader's style of interacting with his/her subordinates and the degree to which the situation gives control and influence to the leader. (Robbins,1997, p.421).

Fiedler developed a personality measure, the least preferred co-worker (LPC) scale, as a measure of leader personality. The measure is based upon a series of semantic differential ratings of a person with whom one has worked in the past and is completed by the leader not by the subordinate (Lawerance, 2000, p.20). The underlying premise is that a leader's description of the person with whom he/she has worked experienced the greatest difficulty working is reflective of a basic leadership style. Fiedler's second

premise is that the leader's personality orientation or behavioural style influences group performance and varies according to "situation favourability". Robbins (1997) summarized these situations: (p.422)

a) Leader-member relations: The degree of confidence, trust, and respect subordinates have in their leader;

b) Task structure: The degree to which the job assignments structured / unstructured); and

c) Position power: the degree of influence a leader has over power variables such as hiring, firing, discipline, promotions, and salary increases.

Results from Fiedler's research indicated that task-oriented leaders are more effective in high-control and low-control situations, and that relationship-oriented leaders are more effective in moderate-control situations. Task-oriented leaders perform better in favourable situations "because everyone gets along, the task is clear, and the leader has power; all that is needed is for someone to take charge and provide direction" (Daft, 1999, p. 96).

Conditions unfavourable to the task-oriented leader require high levels of structure and task direction. The relationship-oriented leader performs better in favourable situations because human relations skills are important in achieving high group performance in these situations.

Fiedler's Model Limitations
Reviewers of Fiedler's research have found that there is nothing automatic or good in either the task orientated or people satisfaction orientated style (Bloisi, et al, 2007, p. 660). Research by Yukl (1981) has also questioned the meaning of the "least preferred co-worker" score, while others stated that LPC scores are not stable (Kennedy, et al, 1987, pp. 807-14).

Chemers (1997) noted the weakness of Fiedler's model is its failure to describe or directly analyse the processes by which a leader's motivational orientation affects group processes and outcomes. While the model does predict leadership effectiveness, it does not delineate the processes that produce effective leader performance (Hughes, 2005, p. 35).

Kennedy, et al (1987), further, suggested that additional variables are needed as contingency factors and that more reliable measures of leader's styles are needed.

2.2.4.2 House and Mitchell Path-Goal Theory

The path-goal theory developed by House in 1971 and refined in 1974 by House and Mitchell, "argued that motivation to engage in behaviour was a function of the product of the person's perception of the probability that the behaviour would lead to a goal and the perceived importance of the goal" (Chemers, 1997, p. 44). The model is based on the belief that the individual's motivation is dependent upon expectations that increased effort to achieve an improved level of performance will be successful, and expectations that improvement will be instrumental in obtaining positive rewards and avoiding negative outcomes. (Mullins, 2008, p.322). The leader can influence subordinates' perceptions of work and the paths to attaining stated goals (Holda, 1995).

Bartol and Martin summarized the path goal theory's four major leader behaviours into four groups (Bartol & Martin, 1998, pp 431-432):

(a) Directive Leadership: involves letting subordinates know what is expected of them, providing guidance about work methods, developing work schedules, indentifying work evaluation standards, and indicating the basis for outcomes or rewards. It is similar to task orientation.

(b) Supportive leader behaviour entails showing concern for the status, well-being, and needs of subordinates; doing small things to make the work more pleasant; and being friendly and approachable. This behaviour is similar to relationship0oriented or consideration behaviour.

(c) Participative leader is characterized by consulting with subordinates, encouraging their ideas when making decisions.

(d) Achievement-oriented leader involves setting challenging goals, high degree of confidence in subordinates.

Figure (2.2) illustrates path-goal theory proposes two classes of situational or contingency variables that moderate the leadership behaviour-outcome relationship: those in the environment that are outside the control of the subordinate (factors including task structure, the formal authority system, and work group) and those that are part of the personal characteristics of the subordinate (power of position, experience, and perceived ability).

Figure 2.2 Path-Goal Theory
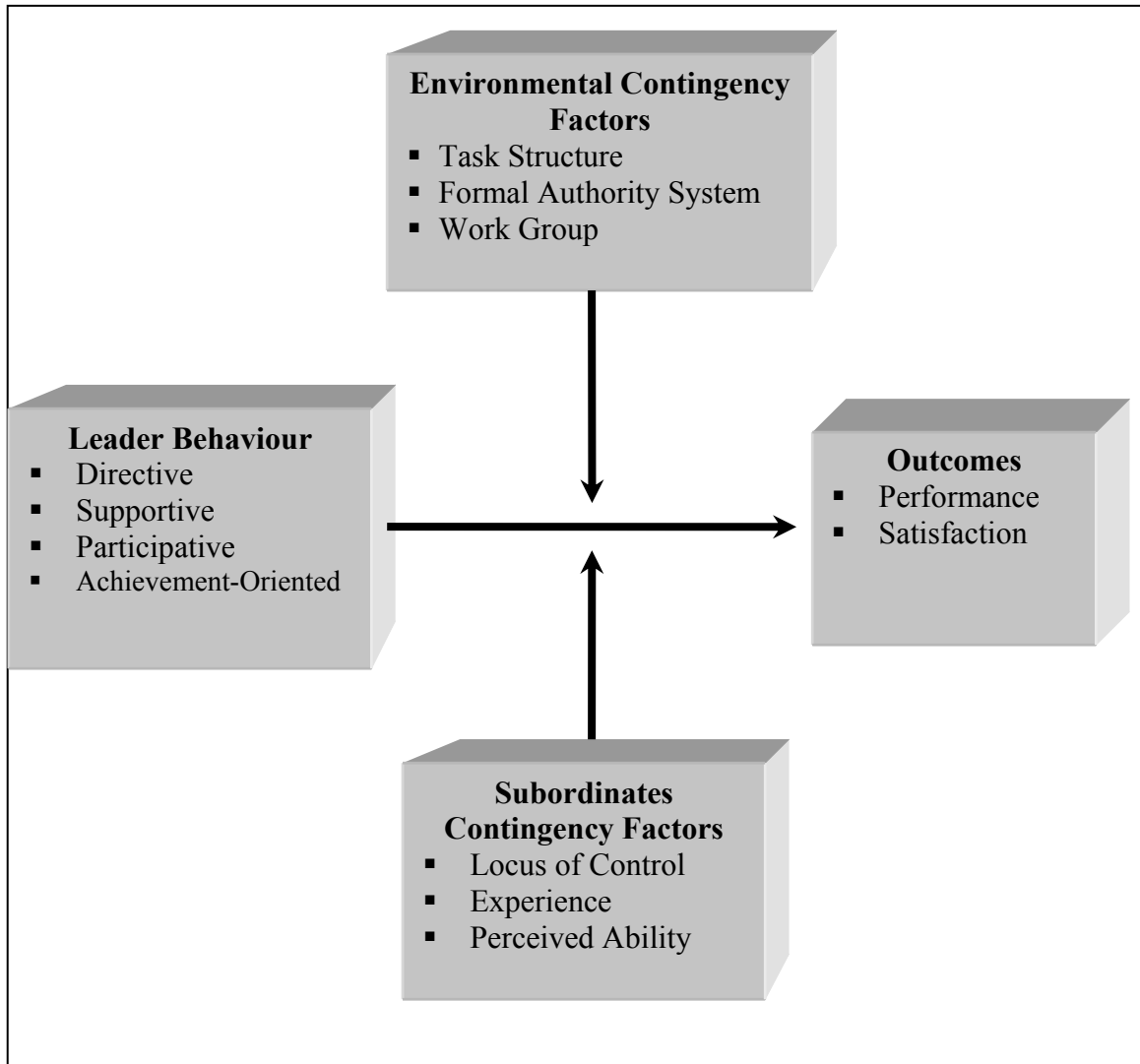
Environmental factors determine that type of leader behaviour required if subordinate outcomes are to be maximized; personal characteristics of the subordinate determine hoe the environment and leader behaviour are interpreted. (Robbins & Coulter, 1999, p525).

Path-Goal Limitation

Yukle has defined the major deficiencies of the Path-goal theory (Yukle, 2002, p.216) as follows:

1. The main weakness is the use of expectancy theory as the primary basis for explaining leader influence. This rational decision model provides an overly complex and seemingly unrealistic description of human behaviour. Expectancy

theory doesn't take into account emotional reactions to decision dilemmas, such as denial or distortion of relevant information about expectancies and valences.

2. Its reliance on broad categories of leader behaviour that do not correspond closely to the mediating processes.

Robbins (1997) added to those limitations that the evidence supports the logic underlying the theory, that is employee performance and satisfaction are likely to be positively influenced when the leader compensates for things lacking in either the employee or the work setting. However, the leader who spends time explaining tasks when those tasks are already clear or when the employee has the ability and experience to handle them without interference is likely to be ineffective because the employee will see such directive behaviour as redundant or even insulting. (Robbins, 1997, pp. 428-429).

2.2.4.3 Vroom and Yetton (Leader-Participation Model)

Vroom and Yetton (1973) focused their research on decision-making rather than styles of leadership (Holda, 1995). This model seeks to enhance the decision-making ability of the leader and the follower's acceptance of those decisions. It was complex decision tree incorporating seven contingencies whose relevance could be identified by making "Yes" or "No" choices (Robbins, 1997, p. 429).

Vroom and Yetton's model was normative; it provided a sequential set of rules that should be followed for determining the form and amount of participation desirable in decision making, as dictated by different types of situations (Robbins, 1997, p. 429).

The model presents three basic styles: (Bloisi, et al, 2007, pp. 665-666)

a) **Autocratic**: where the leader unilaterally makes decisions.

b) **Consultative** where the leader solicits member inputs before deciding.

c) **Group**: where the leader collaborates with members to arrive at a joint decision.

Chemers (1997) explains the leader must evaluate each of these choices and select the appropriate approach for the current situation. Bass (1990a) suggests the following variables may influence the leader's choice of leadership style: (a) quality requirement of the solution, (b) sufficient information to allow the leader to make an informed decision, (c) structure of the problem, (d) follower acceptance important to

implementation, (e) follower support of independent decision making, (f) follower support of organizational goals, and (g) the probability of conflict among followers.

<u>Vroom & Yetton limitation</u>

Yukle had seriously criticized this model, conceptually and its mechanism, (Yukle, 2002, pp. 91-96):

1. The model fails to capture some differences among situations by requiring a definite yes-no answers to the situational questions.

2. Decision processes are treated as a single, discrete episode that occurs at one point in time, but most important decisions are not made in this way. Decisions typically involve multiple meeting with a variety of different people at different times.

3. The theory is not parsimonious. The distinction between autocratic, consultative, and joint decision procedures in more important than the distinction made among sub-varieties of each procedure.

4. Leaders assumed to have the skills necessary to use each of the decisions procedures, and leader skill in not a factor in determining which procedure is most appropriate.

2.2.4.4 Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Model

Situational leadership theory as presented by Hersey and Blanchard developed from the work of J.W. Reddin's 3-Dimentional Management Style Theory, which hypothesizes the importance of a manager's relationship orientation and task orientation in conjunction with effectiveness (Reddin, 1967, p. 8). This model focuses on two leader behaviours that are similar to the initiating-structure and consideration behaviours pioneered by the Ohio State researchers (Bartol & Martin, 1998, 429).

The propositions were: (a) leadership styles vary among individuals; (b) some leaders initiate structure to accomplish tasks, others maintain personal relationships, while still others do nothing; (c) effective leadership style depends on the situation; (d) the best attitudinal style is high-task and high-relations oriented, (e) the tasks and maturity level of the follower will dictate the most effective leadership style; and (f) maturity of the follower is a product of the individual's level of education, prior training, or age (Hughes, 2005, p. 37).

Hersey and Blanchard proposed a life-cycle theory of leadership; the degrees of task orientation and relationship orientation are to be examined in conjunction with the maturity of a follower or group of followers in order to account for leader effectiveness (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993). The main principle of the life-cycle theory is that as the level of maturity in a follower increases, effective leader behaviour will involve less task orientation (the extent to which a leader engages in giving out work responsibilities) as well as relationship orientation (the degree to which a leader engages in communication with employees).

Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson created a model to help make the Situational Leadership Theory practical (figure 2.3). As followers move from right to left on the development level continuum at the bottom of the model, the combinations of task and relationship behaviour (that is, the leadership style) appropriate for a given situation begin to change. By identifying a point on that continuum that represents the degree to which a follower has developed and constructing a straight line from that point to the place where it intersects with the bell curve in the leadership style model, one can get a relatively accurate idea about the most appropriate leadership style necessary for a given situation (Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson 2001, p.181).

Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson, attempted to match four leadership patterns (a) task oriented, (b) dynamic, (c) relations oriented, and (d) delegating, with four levels of maturity (a) low, (b) moderately low, (c) moderately high, and (d) high. (Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson, 2001). Mullins, described these specific leadership behaviours, and followers' readiness as follows (Mullins, 2008, pp 325-326):

2.2.4.4.1   Task behaviour – relationship behaviour
S1 Telling/ Directing: (high task-low relationship). Leaders define the roles and tasks of the followers, and supervise them closely. Decisions are made by the leader and announced, so communication is largely one-way. For people who lack competence but are enthusiastic and committed, they need direction and supervision to get them started.

S2-Selling/ Coaching (high task-high relationship). Leaders still define roles and tasks, but seek ideas and suggestions from the followers. Decisions remain the leader's prerogative, but communication is much more two-way. For people who have some competence but lack commitment, they need direction and supervision because they are still relatively inexperienced. They also need esteem, and involvement in decision making to restore their commitment.

Figure 2.3 Hersey and Blanchard Theory
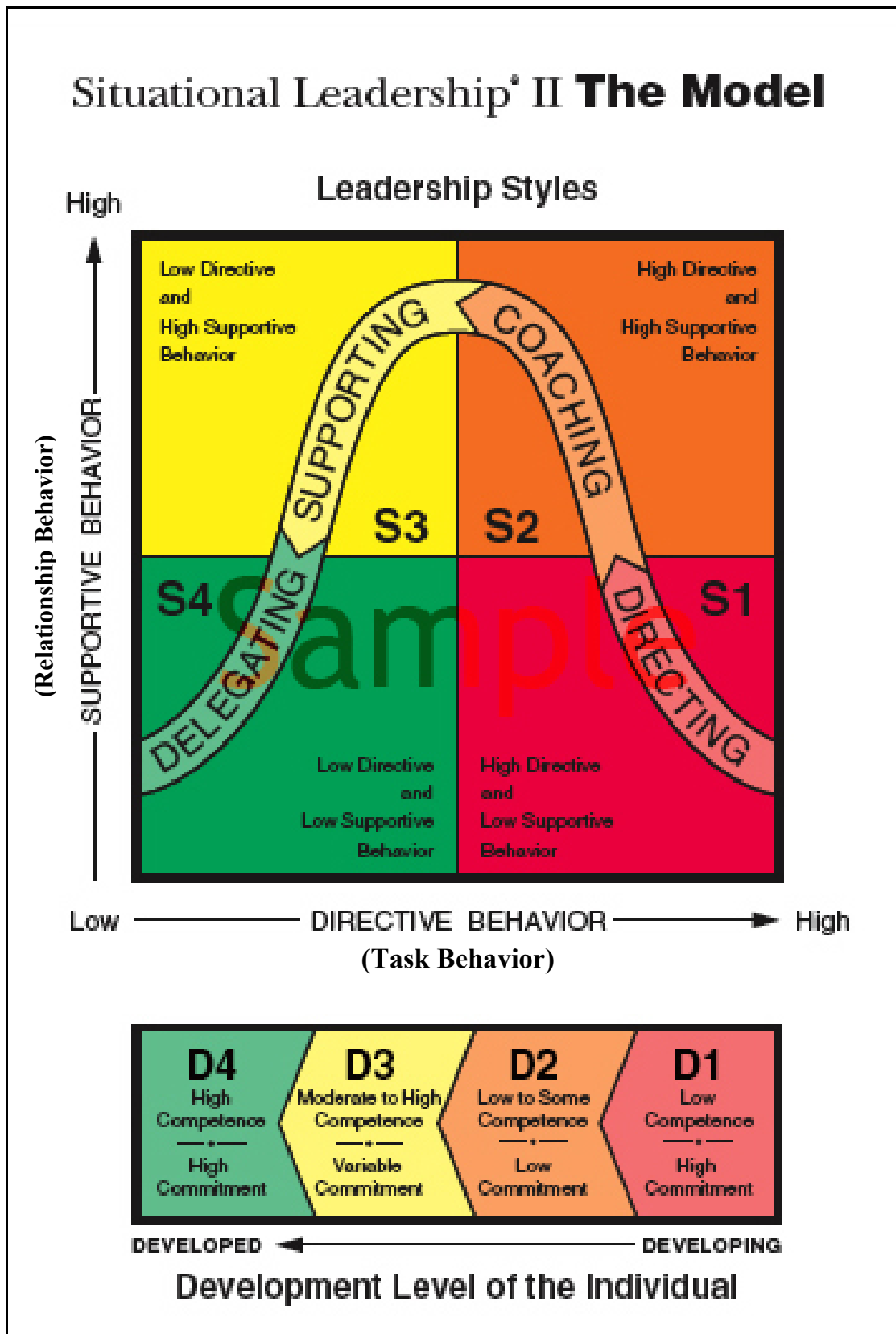
S3-Participating / Supporting (low task-high relationship). Leaders focus day-to-day decisions, such as task allocation and processes, to the followers. The leader facilitates and takes part in decisions, but control is with the followers. For people who have competence, but lack confidence or motivation, normally do not need much direction because of their skills, but support is necessary to bolster their confidence and motivation.

S4- Delegating (low task- low relationship). Leaders are still involved in decisions and problem-solving, but control is with the followers. The followers, who have both competence and commitment, decide when and how the leader will be involved. They are able and willing to work on a project by themselves with little supervision or support.

2.2.4.4.2 Readiness of the followers

Readiness is the extent to which followers have the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task. It is not personal characteristics of the individual, but how ready the individual is to perform a particular task. (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993).

Readiness (Maturity) was identified as the most significant variable in determining leadership style. Follower maturity is responsible for the relationship between leader behaviour and leader effectiveness. (Hughes, 2005, p. 39). It can be divided into a continuum of four levels: D1 (low), D2 and D3 (moderate), and D4 (high), and they are defined as follow (Mullins, 2008, p.323):

D1- Low follower readiness: refers to followers who are both unable and unwilling and who lack commitment and motivation; or who are unable and insecure.

D2- Low to moderate follower readiness: refers to followers who are unable but willing, and who lack ability but are motivated to make an effort; or who are unable but confident.

D3- Moderate to high follower readiness: refers to followers who are able but unwilling, and who have the ability to perform but are unwilling to apply their ability; or who are able but insecure.

D4- High follower readiness: refers to followers who are both able and willing, and who have the ability and commitment to perform; or who are able and confident.

Therefore, to apply Hersey and Blanchard theory, leaders need to determine what tasks areas they would like to influence, assess the readiness level of the individual, and select the leadership style that corresponds to that level. The theory, however, promote the notion that leaders must help increase the task-related readiness of followers as quickly as feasible by appropriately adjusting their own leadership styles to move through the cycle from telling to delegating (Bloisi, et al, 2007, p.431).

<u>Hersey and Blanchard model limitations</u>

Though widely known and used, Situational Leadership Theory has substantive questions raised in literature regarding its validity. There are people who possess the appropriate knowledge and skills and appear to be the most suitable leaders in a given situation, but who do not emerge as effective leaders. (Mullins, 2008, p. 318). Hersey and Blanchard model was seriously criticized on both: theoretical and empirical facets:

A. **Theoretical Component**:

Vecchio questioned whether Situational Leadership added a new concept that differs from the previous theories. He points out that Hersey and his colleagues are not offering anything new or original with their theory; it just a revised copy of Ridden model (Vecchio, 1987).

Claude Graeff argues that this model may have derived from a 1966 article by A.K. Korman who suggested the probability of a curvilinear relationship between dimensions of leader behaviour and other variables (Graeff, 1983, p. 285).

Robbins goes further stating that it is too much similar to Managerial Grid – the Hersey and Blanchard four leadership styles and the four extreme corners in the Managerial Grid. The telling style equates to level (9,1) leader; selling equates to level (9,9); participating is equivalent to level (1,9); and delegating is the same as the level (1,1) leader. (Robbins, 1997, p. 425).

Nevertheless, one might also contend that this model is superior in that it focuses on "critical features of behaviour that have been previously identified" (Vecchio, 1987, pp. 444-445).

This model doesn't explain fully the interpersonal behaviour or the different styles of leadership and their effect on members of the group. Also, in the work organization, it is not usually practicable to allow the situation continually to determine who should act as the leader. (Mullins, 2008, p. 318).

Graeff, further, argued that presenting a four-dimensional model (task orientation, relationship orientation, follower maturity, and effectiveness) in a two-dimensional graphic is a critical problem for the theory. This "conceptual contradiction" is partially illustrated by the fact that at readiness levels one and three, workers are said to be unwilling or unmotivated, while at readiness levels two and four, workers are said to be motivated; an approach that is inconsistent with the linear (scale) exhibited in the model. (Graeff, 1983, p. 286).

Graeff also pointed out the theory's tendency to overemphasize the ability dimension, and how this overemphasis can severely limit the usefulness of the theory. (Graeff 1983, p. 287); if an employee has a low self-esteem that results is a low level of self-confidence (D1), his willingness will be virtually non-existent and his performance will be poor, while according to the theory this low level of maturity calls for high task, low relationship leadership! Yet the theory's authors do not advocate compulsion for employees that are insecure or shy (Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson 2001, pp. 210-214). It is reasonable to anticipate the need for high relationship in such a situation, yet the model suggests the opposite.

Mullins found it difficult to understand the development of followers' level of readiness; from D1, D2, D3 to D4; how can one go from being insecure (D1) to confident (D2) and then become insecure again (D3)? (Mullins, 2008, p.324).

B. Empirical studies
The theory had received little attention from researchers; some of them provided partial support for the theory, while others found no support for its assumptions (Robbins, 1997, p. 426).
A review of the literature, however, supports many others who have concluded that published empirical analysis of Situational Leadership Theory has been rare and relatively conflicting regarding its accuracy.

- Hambleton and Gumpert's asked managers to randomly choose four subordinate employees to complete Hersey and Blanchard survey instrument. Manager ratings of subordinate maturity were coded in conjunction with manager self-assessments of leadership style. The researchers identified only 29% of cases matching, while the rest are mismatching this coding (Hambleton and Gumpert 1982, 225-242). Vecchio points out that while these findings show some empirical support for the theory, a myriad of concerns regarding the structure and process of the study disqualify any support the study might give (Vecchio, 1987, 445).

- In a study published in 1990, Blank, Weitzel and Green issued the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire to 27 university hall directors and a self-developed measure of maturity to 353 resident advisors. The hall directors provided performance ratings of resident advisors, and resident advisors completed subscales of the Job Description Index satisfaction measure. The researchers' analysis examined interactions between subordinate maturity and leader style behaviour dimensions in an attempt to predict subordinate job satisfaction and performance. The result revealed no support for Situational Leadership Theory (Blank, Weitzel and Green 1990, pp.579-597).

- In an attempt to validate Situational Leadership Theory, Vecchio issued a variety of instruments to 303 high school teachers and 14 high school principles. Vecchio found support for the theory in the "low maturity" condition, inconclusive support for the theory in the two levels of moderate maturity, and no support for predictions of Situational Leadership Theory for subordinates with high maturity (Vecchio 1987, 447-450).

- In a 1992 study, Norris and Vecchio distributed instruments to 91 nurses and their supervisors and found similar results to the Vecchio's 1987 study (Norris and Vecchio 1992, 336-339). Fernandez & Vecchio studied again using a sample of 332 university employees and 32 supervisors, and concluded that Situational Leadership Theory "has little descriptive utility" (Fernandez and Vecchio, 1997, p. 67).

- Cairns et. al., tested the central hypothesis of Situational Leadership Theory - the interaction of leader behaviour and employee readiness that determines leader effectiveness. They had tested 151 senior level employees of a large Fortune company. While the theory suggests that the appropriate level of task behaviour and relationship behaviour should match the level of readiness maturity in followers, only 12% matched, providing no support for the Situational Leadership Theory (Cairns et al. 1998, pp. 113-116).

- Finally, Bryman concluded that even there was disagreement on the model's validity; questions were raised about why favourableness was the only situational factor examined. Also, studies within the contingency framework also generated inconsistent results (Bryman, 1996).

In summary, empirical evidence provides only partial support for the principles of Situational Leadership Theory including Hersey and Blanchard and lends credence to the criticisms presented to the theoretical component.

Section Three: Full Range Leadership Theory
2.3.1 Introduction
Admitting the difficulties faced the situational leadership approach, researchers have moved from a scientific management perspective into human relations and organizational behaviour. The pioneer of this paradigm was Burns (1978) who recognized the transactional leadership style, which focused on motivating followers by exchanging rewards to services rendered. (Stumpf, 2003).

Bass (1985) expanded on Burns work, arguing that existing theories of leadership focused on followers' goal and role clarification and the ways leaders rewarded or sanctioned follower behaviour. Bass described leaders who influence followers to transcend self-interest for the greater good of their units and organizations in order to achieve optimal performance as "transformational". Transformational leadership is necessary to provide a higher meaning and purpose (Antonakis & House, 2002).

While Burns viewed transactional and transformational leadership as a dimensional construct with the two at opposite ends of the same continuum, in contrast, Bass viewed them as complementary constructs, and as such, saw it possible, in fact almost necessary, for a leader to engage in both leadership behaviors. (Dum Dum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002). Transformational leadership is not a substitute for transactional leadership, but rather tends to add to its effectiveness (Bass, 1997). In other words, transformational leadership is an extension of the traditional transactional leadership, and leaders are most effective when they exhibit both styles.

Transformational leadership theory has undergone several revisions and expansions (e.g. Bass, 1990b; Avolio & Bass, 1991; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Hatter & Bass, 1998; Avolio, 2003 & 2004). In that sequence, Avolio and Bass (1995) developed the Full Range Leadership Theory (FRLT), which evolved from Bass' transactional/ transformational theory (Antonakis & House, 2002), and considered the most contemporary model in that has the potential to explain leadership and its multidimensional nature and to empirically measure behaviours that can be used to predict leadership outcomes (Antonakis et al, 2003).

The FRLT has been deemed more successful in determining effective leadership because it (a) has been widely accepted in leadership literatures, (b) is supported by empirical research, and (c) is integrative (Hughes, 2005, pp. 43-44). The researcher adopted this model in examining the dominant leadership style in UNRWA.

FRLT views the leadership style as a multi-dimensional construct, figure (2.5) illustrates, including five transformational leadership factors, three transactional leadership factors, and laissez-faire leadership or the absence of leadership (Antanokis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003).

Figure 2.4 Full-Range Leadership Theory
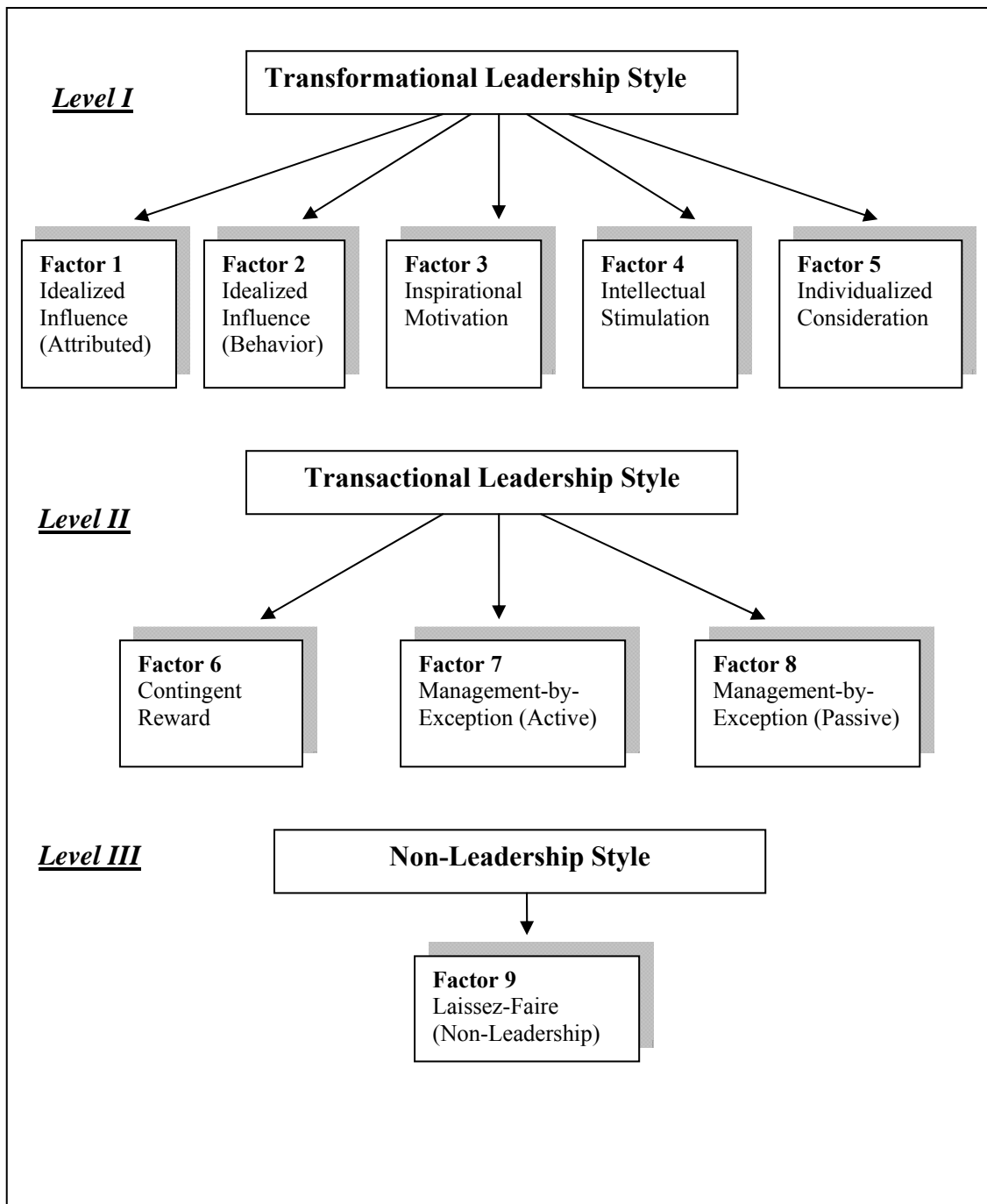
(Source: Conceptualized by researcher)

2.3.2 Transactional leadership

Burns (1978) indicated transactional leadership, commencing from defining the relationship between superiors and subordinates as a social exchange, motivated followers primarily through conditional rewards. These rewards were results of reaching established goals and task accomplishment. Bass defined the transactional leader as one who pursues a cost-benefit, economic exchange to meet subordinates current material and psychic needs in return for contracted services rendered by the subordinate (Bass, 1990b). Transactional leadership could also be viewed as involving exchanges between leaders and followers that reflected more traditional values such as honesty, fairness, responsibility, and reciprocal obligation. The exchange would result in the employee's compliance in exchange for the leader's assistance in pointing the way to the attainment of mutual goals. (Cheng, 2003, p. 21).

Bass (1990b) indicated that the transactional leader accomplished the aforementioned attainment of mutual goals and contributed to the adequacy of his or her subordinates' performance in five steps:

1. Involved the clarification of what was expected from the subordinates including the objective of their performances.

2. The supervisor explains what the employees were to do in order to meet the expectations set forth.

3. The explanation of how the performance would be evaluated.

4. The supervisor would provide feedback to the employees regarding whether the objectives had been met.

5. Finally, the supervisor would allocate rewards based on the attainment of the objectives (Bass, 1990b).

Transactional leadership involves either positive or negative exchange, depending on the follower's performance (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Once the exchange is completed, there is no further need to interact unless another process of contingent reward introduced (Antonakis & House, 2002).

Transactional leadership subscales (three factors):
Avolio & Bass (2002) indentify three components of transactional leadership that are:

1. Contingent reward, this leadership style refers to leader behaviour emphasizing on role clarity and task requirements, and providing followers with material or psychological rewards contingent on the fulfilment of contractual obligations (Hatter &

Bass, 1998). Such leadership behaviour is focused on clarifying effort-reward relationships and involves exchanges that take place between a leader and his or her followers. That is, a leader discusses with followers what is required and clarifies how these outcomes are to be achieved and the reward they will receive in exchange for their satisfactory effort and performance.

In general, contingent reward leaders provide tangible or intangible support and resources to followers in exchange for their efforts and performance, define rules regarding work duties, maintain standards, and determine the consequences of goal attainment. (Walumbwa, et al, 2008, p. 252). It is this focus on clarifying roles and expectations that distinguishes contingent reward leader behaviour from transformational leadership. This style is effective, but to a lesser degree than transformational leadership (Hughes, 2005).

2. Management-by-exception (active) is a corrective transaction and occurs when the follower deviates from the norm. In this leadership style, leaders are active vigilance whose goal is to ensure that standards are met (Antonakis, et al, 2003, p. 265). Leaders don't wait for mistakes to materialize. Emery and Baker (2007) stated "Active leadership involves an interaction between leader and follower that emphasizes a more proactive positive exchange" (Emery & Baker, 2007, p. 81). Bass, 1997 annotated that leaders, enforce the rules to avoid mistakes (Bass, 1997).

3. Management-by-exception (passive) is similar to management-by-exception (active); however, passive leaders do not actively monitor performance, but instead wait until deviations occur and then implement a corrective action. In this style of management, leaders allow the status quo to exist as long as the old ways are working; if things go wrong, however, the leaders will take actions that often have a negative connotation. (Emery & Baker, 2007, p. 80).

2.3.3 Transformational Leadership

Overall, the transformational leadership provides deeper aspects on leadership than previous theories, for example contingency (situational) theory. The situational leader acts according to the situation and maturity level of the subordinate, having short–run effect, whereas the transformational leader influences the subordinates' deeper needs and has long–run effects. Roughly comparing, the situational leadership theory is quite near to the transactional leadership model, where the rewards and punishments are the motivators for the right kind of behaviour. In situational leadership, the leader's behaviour is the tool to reward or punish. Transformational leadership has deeper and wider impacts. Even if the transformational leader takes into account the situation and the maturity level of the subordinate, he or she sees the individual differences and potential of each subordinate, and using this information, the leader will motivate subordinates. As a result a more sustainable commitment and stronger effort have been gained. (Hautala, 2005).

Burns saw transformational leadership style as occurring when a leader and his or her followers interacted in such a way so as to "raise each other to higher levels of motivation and morality", with the key being shared values and goals (Bass, 1990b). Transformational leaders care about their followers and understand the impact of their actions on the group, seek the development of followers who are motivated by high-internal values and consequently more attached to the leader's mission (Avolio & Yammarino, 2002). Chemers annotated that "True transformational leadership occurs when followers adopt institutional objectives as part of their own self-concept and pursue their own personal fulfilment by achieving collective purposes" (Chemers, 1997, p. 158).

Transformational Leadership, which is an expansion of transactional leadership, does not place major emphasis on exchanges or rewards within the system. Instead, transformational leadership challenges followers to disregard self-interests and encourages pursuit of institutional goals, interests of the group, and moves followers gradually from concerns for exchange to concerns for achievement and growth (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Robbins views transformational leadership as built on top of transactional leadership (Robbins, 1997, p. 439). Table (2.3) provides a comparison between transactional and transformational leadership.

Table 2.3 Transactional versus Transformational Leadership

Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership
Builds on need to get the job done	Builds on the need for meaning and vision.
Pre-occupied with power and position, politics and perks.	Pre-occupied with purposes, values, morals and ethics.
Involved heavily in daily / running affairs	Transcends daily / running affairs to the overall objectives.
Oriented to short-term goals and solid data.	Oriented towards long-term goals without compromising human values.
Mixing causes and symptoms and is concerned with treatment.	Separates causes and symptoms and works at prevention.
Focuses on tactical issues to complete targets.	Focuses more on missions and strategies for achieving them.
Relies on human relations to oil human interactions, relies on bargaining.	Makes full use of available resources, transcending to function beyond expectations, relies on empowerment.
Follows and fulfils role expectations by striving to work effectively within current systems.	Designs and pre-designs jobs to make them meaningful and challenging; realises human potential.
Reward formally	Reward informally, personally.
Supports structures and systems that reinforce the bottom line.	Aligns internal structures and systems to reinforce over-arching values and goals.

(Adopted from Birmingham Grid for Learning, 2009 and Mathibe, 2009).

Transformational leadership is the development of a relationship of mutual needs, aspirations, and values in which the leader looks for potential motives. Followers and leaders unite to achieve a common goal, which places emphasis on institutional goals and not personal agendas (Avolio & Yammarino, 2002).

Transforming leaders are known for their ability to motivate and energize followers into a common vision that identifies high goals for the organization (Hughes, 2005, 44). The relationship between a transformational leader and followers encourages performance that exceeds expectations of all parties. Transformational leaders are able to motivate followers to do more than originally planned and often even more than they thought possible.

<u>Transformational leadership subscales (five factors):</u>

1. Idealized Influence (attributed), also referred to as attributed charisma, described as followers' perception of the leader's power, confidence, and inspirational ideals. This emotional aspect of leadership is credited with shifting follower self-interest to a global perspective that places the welfare of the organization first (Hughes, 2005)

2. Idealized Influence (behaviour), also referred to as behavioural charisma, includes leader behaviours that reveal the leader's values and beliefs, ethical and moral values, and vision. This type of leader models appropriate behaviour for followers. Power is used only when necessary and never for personal gain (Hughes, 2005).

Some researchers consider factors one and two, above, as one component forming "charisma", which is the ability to inspire pride, faith, and respect; to recognize what is really important; and to articulate effectively a sense of mission, or vision, that inspires followers. Leaders are admired, respected and trusted. (Bass, et al, 2003, p. 208). Confidence in the leader provides a foundation for accepting major organizational change. That is the followers who are sure of the virtues of their leaders will be less likely to resist proposals for change. (Hay, 2008).

With combining factors one and two, the transformational leadership style could be summarized into four main factors: charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. (Bartol & Martin, 1998, p. 434).

3. Inspirational Motivation encourages followers to excel. Followers are motivated to achieve objectives that have previously been thought unattainable. The leader raises expectations and communicates confidence in followers that encourages the achievement of ambitious goals; enthusiasm and optimism are results of this leadership behaviour (Hughes, 2005). According to (Hay, 2008), inspirational motivation is related to idealized influence, but whereas charisma is held to motivate individuals, inspirational leadership is about motivating the entire organization to, for example, follow a new idea. Transformational leaders make clear an appealing view of the future, offer followers the opportunity to see meaning in their work, and challenging them with high standards. They encourage followers to become part of the overall organizational culture and environment. (Hay, 2008). This might be achieved though motivational speeches and conversations and other displays of optimism and enthusiasm, highlighting positive outcomes, and stimulating team work. Through these sorts of means, transformational leaders encourage their followers to imagine and contribute to the development of attractive, alternative futures (Bass, et al, 2003, p. 208).

4. Intellectual stimulation encourages followers to question assumptions, invites creative solutions to problems, and challenges the status quo. Leaders encourage creative and innovative thinking and reframe problems in order to gain new perspectives. Furthermore, the leader does not publicly criticize followers' mistakes. Followers are encouraged to try new approaches and have the right to fail (Hughes, 2005). Lawrence(2000) referred intellectual stimulation to a leader that "promotes a culture that encourages and rewards risk taking which facilitates the innovative process and reflects the value that top management places on employee ideas (Lawrence, 2000, p. 29). Transformational leaders question assumptions and beliefs and encourage followers to creatively propose solutions, approaching old problems in new ways, through empowerment of the followers. (Hay, 2008).

5. Individualized Consideration refers to leaders who act as mentors and pay attention to individual needs for growth and achievement. The leader encourages followers to strive for higher levels of attainment by pursuing challenges. This leader listens, delegates tasks as a means of developing followers, and offers direction or support as needed (Antoakis, et al, 2003). It invites mutually – a mutual exercise of power guided by a living awareness of what is currently at stake for those involved in the transformation process (Lawrence, 2000, p. 28). People are treated individually and differently on the basis of their talents and knowledge with the intention of allowing them to reach higher levels of achievement than might otherwise have been achieved (Hay, 2008).

Yukle provides a set of guidelines, as systemized steps, that transformational leaders should follow:

- Articulate a clear and appealing vision of what the organisation could accomplish or become to help guide the actions and decisions of members.

- Explain how the vision can be attained, and establish a clear link between the vision and a credible strategy for attaining it.

- Act confident and optimistic, and emphasise positive aspects of the vision rather than the obstacles and dangers.

- Express confidence in followers and their ability to carry out the strategy for accomplishing the vision.

- Provide opportunities for early success and increase the confidence of an individual or team undertaking a challenging task.

- Celebrate successes and maintain an awareness of continuing progress, and recognize the contribution and accomplishment of individuals.

- Use dramatic, symbolic actions to emphasise key values in order to reinforce the vision by actions consistent with it.

- Lead by example through exemplary behaviour in day-to-day interactions with subordinates: actions speak louder than words.

- Empower people to achieve the vision by delegating to individuals and team authority for decisions about how to do the work. (Yukle, 2002, pp. 263-266).

2.3.2 Laissez-faire Leadership Style

Avolio and Bass (1991) explained that transactional and transformational leaders can be described as active leaders, acting to prevent problems from occurring in their organizations and acting to solve problems. On the other side, Hartog, Muijen, & Koopman (1997) distinguished between these active forms of leadership and the "extremely passive laissez-faire leadership", noting that the laissez-faire leader "is inactive, rather than reactive or proactive", they added Laissez-faire leaders "avoid decision making and supervisory responsibility" (p. 21). Since the theory of laissez-faire leadership implies that laissez-faire leaders are inactive and passive, as opposed to proactive, it is logical to assume that laissez-faire leaders will score high on avoiding and low on collaborating. Thus, the theory of laissez-faire leadership implies a positive relationship between leaders' scores on laissez-faire leadership and their scores on avoiding and a negative relationship between leaders' scores on laissez-faire leadership and their scores on collaborating. (Hartog, Muijen, & Koopman, 1997).

There are many examples of behaviors that represent a "do nothing" or "hands-off" approach. Such behaviors include staying away from employees, shirking supervisory duties, and being "inactive, rather than reactive or proactive" (Bass, 1990a, p. 550).

Bass (1990a) uses the following statement to differentiate laissez-faire leadership from other types of leadership behaviors and styles: Laissez-faire leadership should not be confused with democratic, relations-oriented, participative, or considerate leadership behavior. Nor should it be confused with delegation or management by exception. Delegation implies the leader's active direction of a subordinate to take responsibility for some role or task. The active delegative leader remains concerned and will follow up to see if the role has been enacted or the task has been successfully completed. The leader who practices management by exception allows the subordinate to continue on paths that the subordinate and the leader agreed on until problems arise or standards are not met, at which time the leader intervenes to make corrections. (Bass, 1990a, p. 545)

Table 2.4 Summary of the Development of Full Range Leadership Theory

Leadership Theories	Features	Limitation
Trait Theories	Focused on leaders' physical ability and personality; leaders are borne.	It lacks validity, leaders without traits ruled & vice versa; difficulty to list endless traits.
Behavioural Theories	Contended that behaviours of the leaders impact work and followers' effectiveness.	Absence of interaction with situations; did not explain why leaders fail.
Situational Theories	Tried to predict which types of leadership style will be most effective in different situations, considering the followers' maturity.	Didn't explain the interpersonal behaviour or the different effect on members of the group; it is not practicable to allow the situation continually determine who leads.
Transactional Theory	Leadership is a social exchange, where leaders guide or motivate their followers in the direction of established goals by clarifying role, task requirements and rewarding system.	Emphasised on rewarding system, positive or negative. The effect on followers is short.
Transformational Theory.	Leaders motivate and energize followers into a common vision that identifies high goals for the organization, moves them gradually from concerns for exchange to achievement and growth. The effects last long.	Lacked the overall view of leaders' behaviours; other styles are needed for the prosperity of organizations; and a less level of environment consideration, than transactional.
Full Range Leadership Theory	Viewed the leadership behaviour as a multi-dimensional construct, where leaders may act transformational, transactional and/or laissez-faire, depending on the interaction among all variables, including leaders, followers, situation, work environment and all related factors.	

(Conceptualized by the researcher, based on the literature review)

Section Four: Organizational Commitment

2.4.1 Organizational commitment Concept

Organizational commitment is widely described in the management and behavioural sciences literature as a key factor in the relationship between individuals and organizations.

In the fields of organizational behaviour and industrial/organizational psychology, organizational commitment is defined, in a general sense, the employee's psychological attachment to the organization. It can be contrasted with other work-related attitudes, such as Job Satisfaction, defined as an employee's feelings about their job, and Organizational Identification, defined as the degree to which an employee experiences a 'sense of oneness' with their organization. (Wikipedia, 2009).

The topic of organizational commitment has been the subject of much theoretical and empirical effort in the field of organizational behaviour, human resource management and industrial/organizational psychology (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1997).

A review of the theoretical literature on the organizational commitment construct shows that very little consensus exists among the scholars and researchers on how the construct can be defined conceptually. As the construct develops and evolves over the years, scholars from the various disciplines give their own conceptual definitions as to how the construct should be conceptually defined.

In discussing park and recreation agency employees, Londan and Howat described individuals with high organizational commitment as those who "are not likely to leave the agency if offered as good a job elsewhere and who plan to stay with the agency indefinitely". (Cheng, 2003, p. 29)

Ketchand and Strawser (2001) stated that organizational commitment "represents the attachment that individuals form to their employing organizations" and would influences employee decisions such as turnover intentions and actual turnover.

The definition of organizational commitment depends on the main approaches to conceptualising and exploring it; these are the attitudinal approach, the behavioural approach, the normative approach and the multidimensional approach. (Mathebula, 2004).

- Attitudinal approach: the relative strength of an individual' identification with, and involvement in a particular organization. (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). They stated three characteristics of organizational commitment: a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; b) willingness to exert a consideration effort on behalf of the organization and c) a strong intent or desire to remain with the organization. A research of the extensive literature reveals a long list of factors that are associated with the development of organizational commitment. Mowday, Steers and Porter have categorized these factors into four major categories of variables. These are: personal characteristics, job characteristics, work experiences and structural characteristics. (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979)

- Behavioural approach: in this approach, the employee continues his/her employment with an organization because investment he/she devoted therein, such as friendship, training, benefits and experience. (Zangaro, 2001).

- Normative approach: in this approach organizational commitment happens when employees goals and values match with those of the organization. (Mathebula, 2004).

- Multi-dimensional approach, is relatively new. It assumes that organizational commitment is more complex than emotional attachment, perceived costs or moral obligation. This approach suggests that organizational commitment develops because of the interaction of all these three components (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The researcher, in consultation with the Supervisor, decided to adopt this recent approach, thus it will be detailed next.

2.4.2 Organizational Commitment Dimensions

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) pointed out that there are differences in the dimensions, forms or components of commitment that have been described in the different multidimensional conceptualizations of organizational commitment. They attributed these differences to the different motives and strategies involved in the development of these multidimensional frame works.

Meyer and Allen (1991) hold that organizational commitment is a multidimensional construct comprising three components: affective, continuance and normative.
Employees whose commitment to the organization is said to be of the normative type remains in the organization simply because they believe they ought to. The factor structure of Allen and Meyer's (1996) organizational commitment scale has been

examined in several studies. Some of these studies include measures from all the three components (affective, continuance, and normative) whilst others focus only on affective commitment measure and/or continuance commitment measure.

Many empirical studies supported that three components are correlated but divergent from each others, i.e. they are valid to test the three component of organizational commitment. (Chang, Chi and Miao, 200; Abdul Karim & Noor, 2006; Brown, 2003; Cheng & Stockdale, 2003).

In arguing for their framework, Meyer & Allen (1991) contended that affective, continuance, and normative commitment were components rather than types because employees could have varying degrees of all three. "For example, one employee might feel both a strong attachment to an organization and a sense of obligation to remain. A second employee might enjoy working for the organization but also recognize that leaving would be very difficult from an economic standpoint. Finally, a third employee might experience a considerable degree of desire, need, and obligation to remain with the current employer" (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 13). Even though the authors present this argument, they do not imply that there is a rationale for summing all the scales to obtain an overall score for organizational commitment. (Brown, 2003). Consequently, for this research, the different scales will be referred to as types rather than components, though they will be totaled eventually.

Meyer and Allen (1991) viewed the organizational commitment and multidimensional concept that has different factors associated with it, outcomes, and implication. Meyer and his colleagues (Meyer & Allen, 1990; 1991; 1996 & 1997; and Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) argued that "commitment as a psychological state, had at least three components, reflecting:
   a)   a desire (affective commitment);
   b)   a need (continuance commitment); and
   c)   an obligation (normative commitment).

2.4.2.1 Affective Commitment:

Affective commitment has been described by Meyer and Allen (1991) as the desire to be involved in a particular organization. It involved an individual's long-term feelings toward his or her work. It is referred as an employee's emotional attachment to identification with and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment will remain in the organization because they want to.

Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) focused on four categories that made up affective commitment: (a) personal characteristics, (b) structural characteristics, (c) job-related characteristic, and (d) work experience. Although these factors might contribute, Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that the desire to maintain membership in an organization was due mostly to work experiences.

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) report that affective commitment has been found to correlate with a wide range of outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism, job performance and organizational citizenship behaviour. However, when taking culture into consideration, affective commitment develops more specifically in relation to work experiences within a particular organization, and stresses personal identity and emotional involvement with the organization (Chen & Francesco, 2003).

2.4.2.2 Continuance Commitment

The second dimension of Allen and Meyer's (1990) dimensions of organizational commitment is continuance commitment, which is based on Becker's (1960) side bet theory (Mathebula, 2004, p. 30). The theory posits that as individuals remain in the employment of an organization for longer periods, they accumulate investment, which becomes costly to lose the longer an individual stays. The investments include time, job effort, and organization specific skills that might not be transferable or greater costs of leaving the organization that discourage them from seeking alternative employment, work friendships and political deals.

Meyer and Allen (1991) described continuance commitment as the "perceived costs associated with leaving the organization" (p. 64). "Anything that increases the cons associated with leaving an organization has the potential to create continuance comment" (Meyer and Allen, 1991, p. 77). Ketchand and Strawser (2001) defined continuance commitment as an individual's "desire to maintain their relationship with the organization because of the cost of leaving it and not because of an emotional attachment" (p. 2). This need to remain with the organization may be due to the absence of alternatives and/or to the sunk costs associated with reaching one's current position in the organization, thus these employees exchange their contribution to the organization for the fringe benefits or from fear of losing them.

One of the perceived "costs" and employee may see as a reason to maintain his or her current position is a lack of other viable job opportunities. Meyer and Allen (1991) stated that some of the perceived potential costs of leaving an organization could include "the threat of losing attractive benefits, of giving up seniority-based privileges, or of having to uproot family and disrupt personal relationships. (p. 71). This occurs

when an employee starts to believe that his/her skills are not marketable or that he does not have the skill required to compete for positions in the field. Such an feel tied to his current organization. (Mathebula, 2004, p. 31).

People who work in environments, such as UNRWA, where the skills and training they get are very industry specific can possibly develop such commitment. As a result, the employee feels compelled to commit to the organization because of the monetary, social, psychological, and other costs associated with leaving the organization. It is a sort kind of "opportunity cost", unlike affective commitment, which involves emotional attachment; continuance commitment reflects a calculation of the costs of leaving versus the benefits of staying.

2.4.2.3 Normative Commitment

The third dimension of organizational commitment is normative commitment; Researchers have overlooked this view of organizational commitment, though a few studies explicitly address normative commitment separately from overall commitment (Mathebula, 2004).

Meyer and Allen (1991) described the normative commitment as the obligation to remain in a particular organization. An employee who remained with an organization because of normative commitment did so because he or she felt they should, not because of they wanted or needed to. (Cheng, 2003). A normative commitment to an organization may stem from an individual feeling of a moral commitment due to the costs the company faced in order to train the employee or due to certain social norms. Dunham, et al (1994) stated that a person was less likely to leave an organization if his or her values indicated that it is inappropriate to do so. Meyer and Allen agreed, stating that:

> "The socialization experiences that lead to this felt obligation may begin with observation of role models and /or with the contingent use of rewards and punishment… At a more macro level, cultures may do the same thins to their members emphasizing the importance of the collective rather that the individual" (Meyer and Allen, 1991, 77).

To help with employee retention it is important to maintain open channels of communication to resolve any conflicts or grievances that arose due to organizational norms and individual expectations changing over time. (Cheng, 2003).

2.4.3 Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

What factors contribute to an employee's desire to remain in his or her organization? This is a question that every organization must address in order to maintain a productive workforce. Currently, we live in a fast-paced society in which employees frequently move between jobs and thus are employed at many organizations throughout their careers. Reasons that explain why employees leave an organization are numerous ranging from not feeling satisfied with their job to incompatibility with others at their job to a changing family structure (Ayman, 2003, p. 3), or they are not feel committed to the organization. In other words, the employee may feel that he or she does not belong in the organization or may not feel a sense of shared goals with the organization. Employees' feelings of organizational commitment have important implications for organizations. A possible solution is for organizations to select and retain effective leadership. By changing the outlook and behaviour of followers, transformational leadership has shown to be effective in many organizational settings.

Studies has approved that organizational commitment generates the desire to stay longer, doing their job happily which in turn has an impact on the job satisfaction and job advancement. (Chang, et al, 2007; Villanueva, 2003; Cheng, 2003; Stumpf 2003; Jahangir, 2003; Lawraence, 2000).

Ketchand and Strawser (2001) indicated that there are two main antecedents of organizational commitment, personal and situational. Personal factors are those characteristics that a person possessed prior to entering an organization. Situational factors are those that the employee encountered upon entering the organization such as job quality, degree of participative leadership, and co-worker commitment. They concluded that situational factors had more of an influence of an employee's commitment to the organization than personal factors. Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed that each separate type of commitment had its own set of antecedents:

2.4.3.1 Antecedents for affective commitment

a) Personal characterises, consisted of demographic information such as tenure, age, sex and education. It also included characteristics such as the personal need for achievement, autonomy and personal work ethic.

b) Person's work experience within the organization. This could include an employee's comfort level within the organization, an employee's belief that per-hiring promises have been kept, and the belief of the individual that the organization treats employees equally (Meyer and Allen, 1991, pp. 69-71).

2.4.3.2 Antecedents for continuance commitment

Any thing that increases perceived costs can be considered as antecedent. (Mayer and Allen, 1991, p.71). Testing the importance of these antecedents, however, could be difficult because each individual views his or her costs and benefits of leaving very differently. (Cheng, 2003, p. 36). Dunham, et al (1994) suggested, instead, that age and tenure as potential antecedents to continuance commitment rather than affective. They also included career satisfaction and intent to leave. Tenure for example, could indicate such benefits as skills unique to that organization, relationship with co-workers, and retirement investment that could be considered non-transferable if the employee left the organization.

2.4.3.3 Antecedent s to normative commitment

According to Meyer and Allen (1991) antecedents for normative commitment, mostly involved the moral or social pressures a person has encountered through family or cultural interactions prior to entry into the organization. This could also be expanded to include social pressure found within the organization following an individual entering the organization. Dunham, et al (1994) indicated that the dependability of the organization and the amount of participatory management could be "expected to instil a sense of moral obligation to reciprocate to the organization". Organizational dependability is defined as "the extent to which employees feel the organization can be counted on to look after their interests", (Dunham, et al , 1994, p. 371).

Summary

Researchers have advocated the value of full range leadership theory over the past theories that lacked the interaction factor between leaders and followers. Investigations into the impact of specific types of transactional and transformational leadership behaviours revealed varying degrees of effectiveness, though leant towards transformational.

The literature has also attested to the significant value of organizational commitment, finding it linked to several outcomes of individual and organizational efficiency. As such, organizational commitment can serve as an overarching measure for many areas of effectiveness. The specific types of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) offer an opportunity to conduct a more specialized investigation. Leaders' behaviours directly affect organizational commitment; thus examining the relationship transformational, transactional, laissez-faire leadership style and different types of organizational commitment is an important undertaking.

Chapter 3 - Previous Studies

This chapter presented the previous studies related to the current study's variables "Leadership Style" and "Organizational Commitment".

While listing these studies, the researcher kept in mind that knowledge is a cumulative art. The current study would benefit from these pervious studies, however, its distinctive addition was considered. It is imperative that these previous studies will constitute yardsticks to compare the current study's results with, in an attempt to see where they match and where not, opening avenues for future research.

The previous studies were grouped chronologically, based on their native language, into two main clusters: local and Arabic studies; and international studies.

Section one: Local & Arabic Studies

1. Abu Nada (2007), "The Relationship between Some Personal Variables and Leadership Types, and the Organizational Commitment and Organizational Justice". The purpose of the study was to define the relationship between some personal variables and leadership types, on one hand, and the organizational commitment and the feeling of organizational justice, on the other hand, in some Palestinian ministries in Gaza Strip.

The study society included the largest six ministries in Gaza Strip; where the sample comprises (652) employees for whom questionnaires were distributed. These employees had leading positions in these ministries; general director, director, chief of a section, and a chief of a subsection. The researcher considered Hersey and Blanchard leadership model, where leadership styles evolve with the maturity of employees, and identified as: directing, coaching, participating and delegating.

The main results of the study were:

1. The dominant leadership style in the Palestinian ministries is, in ascending order: Telling (indicative) with average 62%, delegated with average 67%, persuasive (consultative) 71% and participative with average of 74%.

2. The organizational commitment of employees was 67%, distributed as follows: loyalty, 64%; responsibility, 74%, affective commitment, 73%; believe in the ministry, 64%.

3. There are differences among the views of the study sample concerning the organizational commitment construed to personal variables.

    a. Positive significant relationship between organizational commitment and age;

    b. Negative significant relationship between organizational commitment and academic qualifications;

    c. Positive significant relationship between organizational commitment and gender for the favour of male over female.

    d. Negative significant relationship between organizational commitment and years of experience.

    e. Widowed had the highest level of organizational commitment, then the married, then single and finally the divorced employees.

    f. Negative significant relationship between organizational commitment and salary.

4. There is a link between the level of organizational commitment and the feeling of organizational justice among the employees.

5. There is a positive significant relationship between the leadership types and the organizational commitment.

The study main recommendations were:

a. Providing a data base system which guides the General Directorate of Human Resource at the General Staff office in the operation of choosing the administrative leaderships according to objective foundations.

b. Reconsidering the system of rewards, promotions in ranks and evaluations of performance, in way that achieves objectivity and justice in these systems.

c. The importance of training leaders how to build up positive work relationships between themselves and their employees, taking into consideration the positive effects of these relationships on behavioural variables which affect – in turn – the organizational commitment and the level of performance and productivity.

2. Abu Samra & Ghneim (2007), "**The Prevalent Leadership Style and its Relationship with Time Management of the Academic Department Chairs in the Community Colleges in Palestine**". The purpose of this study aimed at investigating the prevalent leadership style of the academic department heads in the community colleges in Jerusalem and West Bank, and its relationship with the time management. In addition, it aimed to find out the difference on the leadership style due to the following variables: gender, post title qualification degree, years of experience, and the university graduated from.

The sample of this study consisted of all academic department heads and all the staff members at the community colleges, in the academic year (2005/2006). It consisted of (22) department heads, and (122) members. The researchers developed two-part questionnaire, the leadership style questionnaire, which included (40) items, covering three styles: autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, and time management questionnaire which included (30) items.

The main results of the study were:

1. The democratic leadership style prevailed in the community colleges, and there is a medium degree of time management; 76% of the sample perceived department heads as practicing democratic style, 56.6% perceived them as autocratic style and 45% perceived them as laissez-faire style.

2. There is a significant difference among the respondents' demographic variables and the perceived leadership style:

    a.   There is a positive significant correlation between the level of position and the perceived democratic leadership style; heads of department perceived the democratic leadership style more than autocratic and laissez-faire styles.

    b.   Female respondents rated higher perception of democratic leadership style than male respondents.

    c.   There is a positive significant correlation between the academic qualification and the perceived democratic leadership style. BA holders perceived the autocratic leadership style more, while diploma holders perceived the laissez-faire leadership style.

    d.   There is a negative significant correlation between the years of experience and the perceived democratic and autocratic leadership style, while positive correlation with laissez-faire leadership style.

The study main recommendation was that the community colleges should continue the democratic leadership style and to develop a special programme to enhance the department heads knowledge of their role, responsibilities and accountabilities; and the importance of time management.

3. El-Masri (2006), "Leadership Style of Alqsa University Presidecy as seen by Its Personnel". This study aimed at definition of the dominant leadership style in Al-Aqsa University as perceived by the university employees and how there are statistical differences in the employees view for the mastered leadership style of their university presidency referred to: (sex -specialization – occupational title- experience -scientific degree – administration work experience – type of appointment).

The study community comprises of all academic and administrative workers in Al-Aqsa University, 330 staff. Aiming to achieve these objectives, the researchers developed a questionnaire to examine the leadership style, which covering three styles: autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire, in addition to demographic questions, and applied on 50% of the study community (n=165).

The study main results were:
1. The autocratic leadership style is the most dominant style, averaged at 74%, then the laissez-faire leadership style, with 65% and finally the democratic, with average of 45%.

2.   There is no statistical difference on the staff perception of the leadership style referred to: sex -specialization – occupational title - experience - scientific degree- administration work experience – type of appointment, except for except for arts faculty.

The study's mainly recommended that the top management of the university take efforts to enhance the dialog with staff to improve the "democratic" leadership style.

4. Al-Ahmadi (2004), "**Organizational Commitment and its relationship to Personal Characteristics and Desire to Leave Work and Profession**". The purpose of the study was to investigate the organizational commitment and its relationship with personal characteristics and desire to leave for nurses working in Riyadh hospital, Ministry of Health. A questionnaire was designed, included organizational commitment, desire to leave job and desire to leave profession, dispatched to the sample. The study society consisted of 5236 nurses, where the sample was 500, while only 366 questionnaires were retrieved - 7% of the original society.

The study results showed:
1.   An average increase in organizational commitment for nurses working in Riyadh hospital, while there is no difference in organizational commitment due to martial status and no relationship between marital status and either desire to leave work or desire to leave profession.

2.   There is a positive correlation between the monthly income and organizational commitment and no correlation between the monthly income and either desire to leave work or desire to leave profession.

3.   There is a positive correlation between experience and organizational commitment beside no correlation between experience and either desire to leave work or desire to leave profession. Besides, there is a negative correlation between educational level and organizational commitment, negative correlation between education level and desire to leave work, no correlation between education level and desire to leave profession.

4.   No correlation between age and either desire to leave work or profession; and negative correlation between desire to leave work and organizational commitment.

The study recommended that all hospitals, in order to keep efficient continuous work, must send workers for further studies to raise their efficiency and possess higher certificates. Also, they must run short courses concerning the effect of organizational commitment on patient satisfaction.

5. Al-Fahdawi & Al-Qatawnah (2004), "**The Effects of the Organizational Justice on the Organizational Commitment**". The purpose of this study was to identify the effects of the organizational justice on the organizational commitment of employees of the central administrative departments of Al-Karak, Tafila and Ma'an Governorates. For the purpose of the study a 64-item questionnaire was developed dispatched to 700 subjects, representing 28.6% of the study society. 631 questionnaires were returned which comprises (25.8%) of the target population.

The main findings were:
1. Respondents' perspectives towards the organizational commitment scored middle (3.3940);

2. There was a strong and significant correlation between the organizational justice and the organizational commitment.

3. There was a statistical significant difference between the respondents' perspectives towards the organizational commitment attributed to demographic factors (qualifications, experience, salary and age):

    ♦ Negative relationship with both academic qualifications and experience; and

    ♦ Mixed relationship with salary and age.

4. There was no statistical significant difference between the respondents' perspectives towards the organizational commitment attributed to sex and occupation.

The study main recommendations were:

a. Material and immaterial rewards to be connected directly with the requirements of the organizational justice achievement.

b. Procedures related to the employees performance assessment to be reviewed. Routine and typical procedures should be avoided.

c. Departments should enhance organizational justice and commitment in the mind of its members and to develop such concepts to a higher level.

6. El-Khatib (2004), "**The Dominant Leadership Style in the Palestinian National Authority Organization**". The research focused on the dominant leadership style in the Palestinian National Authority (PNA), in the Gaza Strip. Also it studied the differences among the leadership styles attributed to demographic characteristics. The study society comprises of all staff in the Palestinian Authority (PNA) ministries, at the level of department heads, section heads, and their deputies. The researchers developed a questionnaire to examine the leadership style, which covering three styles: autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire, in addition to demographic questions; the sample was (n=260). The study main results were:

1. The democratic leadership is the dominant style in the PNA ministries, which average was 71.7%, then the laissez-faire and autocratic style were close to each others, 55.6% and 55.4% respectively.

2. There is a correlation between respondents' characteristics and the perceived leadership style:

   a. There is a significant correlation between autocratic leadership style and gender for the favour of females; the mean was 56% for females and 54.6% for males, while it found non-significant correlations between both democratic and laissez-faire leadership styles and gender.

   b. There is a non-significant correlation between both autocratic and democratic leadership styles and experience; while it found a significant positive correlation between laissez-faire leadership styles and experience.

   c. There no significant correlation between leadership style and academic qualifications.

   d. There is a non-significant correlation between both autocratic and laissez-faire leadership styles and position; while it found a significant positive correlation between democratic leadership styles and position for the favour of heads of departments.

3. The study also showed that the democratic style shows distinguished performance for the managers who supervise bigger number of employees.

The main recommendation of the study was to enhance the democratic leadership behaviour and balanced care of management with work and employees. Also, proposing a new performance evaluation system.

7. Khashaly, (2003), "The Effect of Leadership Style of Department Heads on the Organizational Commitment: An Empirical Study on Jordanian Private Universities". This study aimed to measure the effects of leadership style of the department heads of private Jordanian Universities on the commitment dimensions of (affective, normative and continuous) of the faculty members. Questionnaire was used in gathering the data that was distributed among (204) faculty members randomly. The main findings were:

1. There was a significant negative correlation between autocratic leadership style and the affective and normative commitment dimensions, and no correlation with the continuous commitment dimension.

2. There was a positive significant correlation between the democratic leadership style and the affective and normative dimension and there was no correlation with the continuous commitment dimension.

3. There was a significant correlation between the laissez-faire leadership style and the affective and normative commitment dimension and there was no correlation with the continuous commitment dimension.

4. There was no significant statistical difference among respondents' personal traits (academic qualification, age, marital status, salary, experience, nationality) and organizational commitment.

5. There was significant statistical difference among respondents' salary –only- and affective commitment (positive relationship); the rest of personal traits had no significant relationship.

6. There was significant statistical difference among respondents' salary –only- and continuance commitment (negative relationship); the rest of personal traits had no significant relationship.

7. There was significant statistical difference among respondents' -academic qualification, salary, age- (positive relationship) and normative commitment; the rest of personal traits (marital status, experience and nationality) had no significant relationship.

The study's major recommendation was the necessity of setting foundations for selecting heads for scientific departments. The researcher suggested developing an annual system form evaluation of head of departments similar to the annual system of evaluation of teaching staff.

Section Two: International Studies

8. DeGroot, et al. (2009) "**Meta-Analysis to Review Organizational Outcomes Related to Charismatic Leadership"**. This study applied meta-analysis to assess the relationship between charismatic leadership style and leadership effectiveness, subordinate performance, subordinate satisfaction, subordinate effort, and subordinate commitment. Results indicate that the relationship between leader charisma and leader effectiveness is much weaker than reported in the published literature when leader effectiveness is measured at the individual level of analysis and when common method variance is controlled. Results also indicate a smaller relationship between charismatic leadership and subordinate performance when subordinate performance is measured at the individual level (r = 0.31) than when it is measured at the group level (r = 0.49 and robust across studies). These results suggest that charismatic leadership is more effective at increasing group performance than at increasing individual performance. Other moderators tested did not account for a significant portion of variance in the observed distribution of correlations, suggesting a need for further research into other potential moderators. Meta-analysis examining the effects of charismatic leadership on subordinate effort and job satisfaction revealed lower correlations when multiple methods of measurement were used, with little convergence toward stable population estimates.

9. Dale & Fox (2008), "**Leadership Style and Organizational Commitment: Mediating Effect of Role Stress"**. The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of leader behaviour on role stress characteristics and ultimately on organizational commitment. The researcher designed a questionnaire and distributed among 204 full time employees of a large manufacturing cooperation in Midwest. The expected positive linkage between leader style and organizational commitment (mean 6.56) was supported. The correlations between initiating structure and consideration with organizational commitment were r=.20 and r=.48, respectively. These findings are in line with those of other researchers. This is, when subordinates perceive that the supervisor exhibits a high level of initiating structure, the supervisor is formalizing the work environment or providing formal rules and procedures for employees to follow. As a result employees perceive higher felt responsibility and thus have higher affective commitment. Results are showed that the supervisory consideration lends congeniality

to the work environment that can both enhance workers' emotional needs, as well as the development of social involvements. Perhaps it is through the superior that the employee begins identifying with the goals of the organization and internalizing its values. The actions of the superior may be viewed as the action of the organization itself; thus, the organization is personified through the superior. The subordinate may be attracted to and committed to the organization because they perceive it to have values similar with their own.

Also, there is a correlation between demographic characteristics and organisational commitment: significant positive with age; significant positive with gender for the favour of male; and significant negative with years of experience.

The relationship between leadership style and role stress was also supported. Specifically, high levels of initiating structure may indicate that the superior is providing ample work information and clarifying rules and procedures to the subordinate.

The mediation analysis showed that the significant relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment disappeared once role stress was entered into the model. Likewise, the significant relationship between consideration and organizational commitment decreased once role stress was entered. Thus, even though some past research has supported the direct effect of leadership style on organizational commitment, it is quite possible that one's leadership style may play a more important role in enhancing or reducing the impact that may stressful work situation present and this, in turn, is what determines commitment to the organization

10. Walambwa, et al. (2008) "**Contingent Reward Transactional Leadership, Work Attitudes, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour: The Role of Procedural Justice Climate Perceptions and Strength**". The study intended to develop and test group-level of Contingent Reward Transactional (CRT) leader behaviours as an antecedent of group level procedural justice climate perceptions and strength, which further influence follower attitudes and behaviours.

Using a sample of 212 bank employees, the researchers developed a model in which procedural justice climate perceptions and strength mediated the relationships between contingent reward leader behaviour and follower satisfaction with supervisor, organizational commitment, and rated organizational citizenship behaviour, controlling for perceived supervisor support .

Results showed that CRT leader behaviour (with a mean of 5.26) contributes to procedural justice climate perceptions and strength. It also found that procedural justice climate perceptions and strength mediate the relationships between CRT leader behaviour with satisfaction with supervisor (r=.36), organizational commitment (r=.23), and rated organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (r=.47). It is worth noting, however, that results did not reveal full mediation for procedural justice climate perceptions and strength in the relationship between CRT leader behaviour and rated OCB. Regardless, results suggested that when unit members collectively feel the procedures used by their unit supervisors are consistent and fair, which could be fostered by leader reward behaviour, they are more likely to be satisfied with their supervisor, remain committed to the organization, and display organizational citizenship behaviours. Therefore, unit supervisor's fairness promotion does seem to play a pivotal role in translating the effects of CRT leaders to follower positive attitudes and behaviours.

The study recommended future researchers to conduct a more elaborate and integrative studies that include authentic, leader–member exchange, transactional, transformational and servant leadership theories concurrently, and the different aspects of organizational justice, including distributive, informational, and interpersonal justice.

11. Chang, Chi & Miao (2007), "Testing the Relationship between the three-component of Organizational/Occupational Commitment and Organizational/ Occupational Turnover Intention". This study explored the relationship between three -component organizational/occupational commitment and organizational/occupational turnover intention, and the reciprocal relationship between organizational and occupational turnover intention with a non-recursive model in collectivist cultural settings. The sample consisted of 177 nursing staff out of 30

hospitals in Taiwan, and structural equation modelling analysis was conducted to test the hypotheses.

The results showed that:

1. Organizational commitment mean was: affective commitment, 6.19; continuance commitment, 5.81; normative commitment, 5.74.

2. The normative organizational commitment negatively correlates with organizational turnover intention most strongly.

3. The affective occupational commitment negatively correlates with occupational turnover intention most strongly.

4. The organizational turnover intention plays a mediating role in the relationship between normative organizational commitment and occupational turnover intention, while occupational turnover intention mediates the relationship between affective occupational commitment and organizational turnover intention. In particular, the reciprocal relationship exists between organizational and occupational turnover intention.

The study recommended further research to explore additional moderators to further classify the boundary conditions of the three-component of organizational and occupational commitment models.

12. Emery & Barker (2007), "The effect of Transactional and Transformational Leadership Styles on the Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction of Customer Contact personnel. The study examined the effect of transactional and transformational leadership on the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of customer contact personnel in banking and food store organizations. The subjects were 77 branch managers of three regional banking organization and 47 store food managers from national food chain. The results indicated that

1. The transformational factors of charisma (mean =5.64), intellectual stimulation (mean = 3.98), and individual consideration (mean = 5.28) are more highly correlated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment (mean=7.98) than the transactional factors of contingency reward (mean=3.84) and management-by-exception (mean= 3.56).

2. Specifically, the three factors of transformational leadership, i.e. charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration, were significantly correlated with the organizational commitment of food store employees at

r=0.426, r=0.376 and r=0.371 respectively. With respect to the factors associated with transactional leadership, the correlation between contingency reward and organization commitment was r=0.244 (p<.01), and for management-by-exception was 4=-0.153 (p<0.05). Almost identical results were noted in the banking services sector.

3.   Similarly, the results supported the proposition that employees managed under a factor of charisma and intellectual stimulation correlated with the job satisfaction of food store employees at r=-0.212 (p<.05), and r=0.322 (p<.01), respectively. As for the transactional leadership style there was a negative correlation between job satisfaction and management-by-exception r=.244. (p<.01), and the correlation with contingency reward was non-significant. Again, the banking organizations provided similar results. Job satisfaction was positively correlated at r=.130 (p<.05) with intellectual stimulation and lacked significant correlation with the other factors.

4.   Using stepwise and hierarchical regression analysis (Cohen & Cohen, 1983), the research concluded that leader charisma, by itself, is the only factor needed to predict organizational commitment. The intellectual stimulation was the only factor that significantly predicted job satisfaction, as such, this factor appears to have value in leader selection and training programs within the service sector.

The study recommended further research to bridge the gap between personnel selection and leadership theory. Additionally, since charisma is the most predictive of the transformational factors, future efforts are needed to examine its makeup and whether it can be effectively learned.

13. Nemanich & Keller (2007), "Transformational leadership in an acquisition: A field study of employees". This field study of employees involved in major acquisition integration addressed the relationships that leadership and climate had with subordinate acquisition acceptance, performance, and job satisfaction in an uncertain environment. Respondents were employees of a large, multinational firm.

The study showed that the mean of transformation leadership style was rated at 7.2, where its subscales rating as follow: charisma, 7.3; intellectual stimulation, 7; inspirational motivation, 7.4; and individualized consideration, 6.9. Satisfaction rated at average of 7.38.

Transformational leadership was positively related to acquisition acceptance, supervisor-rated performance, and job satisfaction (r=.36 for intellectual stimulation; r=.34 for charisma; r=.40 for individualized consideration); and in total transformational correlated at r=.34 with satisfaction. Transformational leaders also impacted subordinate outcomes through the perceived climate they created for goal clarity and support for creative thinking. Both goal clarity and support for creative thinking partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Goal clarity did not mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and performance, but was positively related to performance. Support for creative thinking fully mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and acquisition acceptance.

This study makes three important contributions to the transformational leadership literature with respect to context, outcome variables, and process understanding.

1. It provided much needed insight into the relationships between transformational leadership behaviours and employee attitudes and performance in the demanding context of acquisition integration.

2. It provided qualitative evidence supporting the prevailing employee perceptions of an acquisition integration context as a disruptive change fraught with uncertainty.

3. Supplied the leadership literature with the finding that transformational leadership is related to better subordinate performance, job satisfaction, and acquisition acceptance in the major organizational change context of acquisition integration. The study supported the dual role of transformational leaders in influencing subordinates both directly and indirectly through the type of climate leaders that can create; climates of goal clarity and support for creative thinking.

The study suggested potentially fruitful new avenues of research into means for helping employees to cope with change and alleviating their uncertainty during organizational change.

14. Abdul Karim & Noor (2006) "Evaluating the Psychometric Properties of Allen and Meyer's Organizational Commitment Scale: A Cross Cultural Application Among Malaysian Academic Librarians" This study focuses on establishing construct validity (convergent and divergent validity) and internal reliability by

applying Allen and Meyer's organizational commitment scale (affective, continuance and normative), among Malaysian academic librarians. Altogether 17 items comprising the measures for both affective and continuance commitment were incorporated in the questionnaire. The survey was administered on 222 academic librarians from all the nine university libraries in West Malaysia.

Findings were based on the responses from 139 usable questionnaires. The findings confirmed that Allen and Meyer construct was reliable, where they concluded Alpha Cronbach coefficient for affective commitment and continuance commitment, at .81, .78, respectively. Also, they found that the two measures (affective and continuance) to be distinguishable from one another i.e. the measures exhibited convergent as well as divergent validity. The findings demonstrate that Allen and Meyer's Organizational Commitment measures are applicable to librarians in general and to academic librarians specifically.

15. Huang, et al (2006), "The impact of participative leadership behaviour on psychological empowerment and organizational commitment in Chinese state-owned enterprises: the moderating role of organizational tenure". This study investigated whether participative leadership behaviour can produce psychological empowerment, which in turn, leads to organizational commitment for employees of Chinese state-owned enterprises.

The study was based on subject responses from 173 employees in two state-owned enterprises, in China.

The main results were that participative leadership behaviour was associated with organizational commitment, but not with its all dimensions of psychological empowerment, namely, meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. In addition, the findings showed that while participative leadership behaviour tended to make short-tenure employees feel competent and thus, more committed to an organization, such leadership behaviour did not have a significant impact on competence as well as organizational commitment for long tenure employees.

16. Kuvaas (2006), "Work performance, affective commitment, and work motivation: the roles of pay administration and pay level". The purpose of this study

was to investigate employee attitudes and behaviours among knowledge workers under different forms of pay administration and pay levels. To examine these issues, the researcher collected data from two business units in a large Norwegian multinational company with pay plans combining individual and collective performance and behaviours as the foundations for individual bonuses; one with two collective components (profit and behaviour of the unit and the organization) and one with an individual component in addition to the two collective components. After controlling for organizational tenure, education, gender, perceived unit support, perceptions of distributive and procedural justice, and type of pay plan, the key findings are that base pay level, but not bonus level, was positively related to both self-reported work performance and affective unit commitment, and that these relationships were partly mediated by intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, moderation analyses revealed that the relationships between bonus level and the outcome variables were not affected by type of pay plan.

17. Moore and Rudd (2006), "Leadership Styles of the Current Extension Leaders". This study sought to describe the demographics and leadership styles of current Extension leaders, the individuals responsible for the day-to-day operations of Extension in each state, and to explain the influence of demographic variables on leadership styles.

The main results were:

1. Of the 47 participants, 70.2% were male; the majority (80.9%) reported their ethnicity as white; the mean age of the participants was 54.5 years; and the mean tenure in Extension was 22 years and the mean tenure in Extension leadership positions was 11.9 years.

2. Over three-quarters (76.6%) of participants held a doctor of philosophy degree. Sixty percent held their highest degree in a social science discipline. Participants had previous experience in 3.19 leadership courses and/or workshops.

3. Participants reported engaging in behaviours related to transformational leadership more often than those related to transactional or laissez-faire leadership. The best model for explaining transformational leadership style explained 13% of the variance and included ethnicity, tenure in Extension, and previous leadership development total score.

4. Although demographics did not significantly influence Transformational Leadership Style on an individual basis, ethnicity, tenure in Extension leadership

position(s), and previous leadership development total score collectively explained 13% of the variance in Transformational Leadership Style.

5. With the exception of tenure in Extension and degree classification, demographics did not significantly influence Transactional Leadership Style on an individual basis, yet participants' highest degree, tenure in Extension, and previous leadership development total score explained 28% of the variance in Transformational Leadership Score.

Finally that study concluded that these findings suggest that factors other than those included in the present study are responsible for explaining the majority of the variance in Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles. Thus, Extension could benefit by recruiting leaders with diverse backgrounds without dramatically influencing the leadership styles of the individuals within leadership positions. It must be noted, however, that little variance existed within the leadership styles of the participants which could suggest that an individuals' leadership style, rather than demographics, is what determines whether or not they become a senior leader within the Extension system. Perhaps those individuals with very different leadership styles never assume leadership positions within the organization.

18. Shore, Sy and Strauss (2006), "Leader Responsiveness, Equity, Sensitivity, and Employee Attitudes and Behaviour".   This study investigated the relationships between leader responsiveness to employee requests and employee attitudes and behaviours in a sample of managers and their subordinates. The sample consisted of 231 managers (198 men, 33 women) and 339 of their subordinates (274 men, 65 women) working for a large multinational transportation firm in the south-eastern United States.

Additionally, the study investigated the moderating effect of an individual difference variable (equity sensitivity), on the relationships between leader responsiveness and employee attitudes and behaviours. To measure the organizational commitment, the researchers used Meyer and Allen's (1984) eight-item measure, where they arrived at a correlation of (alpha = .87), of affective commitment.

The main result of the study was that leader responsiveness related significantly with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour. Furthermore, equity sensitivity moderated the relationships between leader responsiveness and job satisfaction. Entitled reported lower job satisfaction when manager fulfilment of employee requests was low than did Benevolent, whereas differences were minimal when manager request fulfilment was high.

19. Wu, et al (2006), "A Study of the Relationship between Manager's Leadership Style and Organizational Commitment in Taiwan's International Tourist Hotels". This study was aimed at analyzing the cognition and the relationship between managers' leadership styles and employees' organizational commitment in the operation unit of international tourist hotels. In order to meet the features of this industry, both theories, "situational leadership" by Hersey & Blanchard and "organizational commitment" by Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian serve as the basis of this study. From the former theory, how subordinate managers prepare for the task becomes a situational factor. Task and relationship develop as structural sides of situational leadership. In this way, managers' leadership styles can be sorted into the following four types: selling (persuasion), telling (command), participating and delegating (empowerment). In the latter theory, "value," "effort," and "retention" make up the main parts to be studied.

The international tourist hotels involved in this study consisted of 58 state-qualified hotels, where the sample comprised of 331 employees who filled out the questionnaire. The survey instrument included: (a) leadership style inventory, (b) organizational commitment inventory, and (c) personal background data. By analyzing all the data collected, the main results of this study were:

1. Delegating leadership style has the highest frequency of occurrences. It is followed by selling and participating styles. Telling leadership has the lowest frequency of occurrences.

2. Employees of different ages, lengths of services, major subjects, top-level leadership styles, and the locations of the hotels will show significantly different organizational commitments.

3. The more managers belong to the selling, participating, and delegating leadership styles, the more organizational commitment the employees have. The correlations between leadership styles and organizational commitment were significant positive. They are, in descending order: selling, r=.533, delegating, r= .508; participating, r=.503 and least was telling with r=093. In general, the 'participating' leadership attracts the most employee commitment, while the 'telling' leadership obtains the least.

The study main recommendations were,
a. The top-level decision maker should stress the "leading' function" as an essential factor in influencing their subordinates. It is suggested that top-level decision makers should adopt a democratic leadership instead of an authoritative or non-interference leadership.

b. To establish a sound system of benefits, promotion, and development in order to increase employees' organizational commitment, reduce labour turnover, raise productivity and improve service quality.

c. Employees should take part in various training and workshops so as it is necessary to facilitate the cooperation between universities and the hospitality industry.

20. Hughes (2005), "Identification of Leadership Style of Enrolment Management Professionals in Post Secondary Institutions". This study evaluated leadership style of enrolment managers employed at post secondary institutions in the southern United States. Enrolment managers coordinate numerous functions associated with recruiting, retaining, funding, and tracking students. Individuals who supervised both the undergraduate admissions office and student financial aid office were included in the study.

The sample size was 397; with (51%) response rate and 118 questionnaires met the selection criteria and were used in the data analyses. Participants completed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and were categorized as having either transactional leadership style or transformational leadership style.

Leadership style was compared with the participant's gender, type of employing institution, level of education, years of leadership experience, and student enrolment at the employing institution. Results gleaned from this study suggest there is not a statistically significant association between leadership style and the participant's gender ($p = 0.276$), their type of institution (two-year or four-year), $p = 0.412$; public or private, $p = 0.685$), and their levels of education ($p = 0.635$).

There was, however, statistical support of a dependent relationship between an enrolment manager's years of supervisory experience and their leadership style ($p=0.032$). This finding supports the theory that leadership behaviours and characteristics can be learned. It provides a basis upon which administrators may justify the allocation of resources for leadership development.

21. Eppard (2004), "Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles as They Predict Constructive Culture and Defensive Culture". The purpose of this study was to test a predictive model of several components of organizational and leadership Culture in a large sample of municipal employees using three sets of predictors: demographic/ employment status of employees, measures of employees' judgments of their supervisor's transactional leadership styles, and measures of employees' judgments of their supervisor's transformational leadership style.

The research utilized two concepts: leadership theory (transformational and transactional leadership) and organizational culture (constructive culture and defensive culture) to analyze the relationship of organizational culture to leadership styles. The major findings of this study were:

1. Transformational Leadership factored scores were positively and significantly correlated with Constructive Culture factored scores and therefore Transformational Leadership added significant variance in predicting Constructive Culture.

2. Transactional Leadership factored scores were positively and significantly correlated with Defensive Culture factored scores and therefore Transactional Leadership added significant variance in predicting Defensive Culture.

3. Organizations have subcultures that display the personality of the individual departments or units.

4. The type of work performed or provided influences the type of leadership style.

5. The MLQ instrument was found to be a weak measurement of leadership. Perhaps, this is the most important finding. As a result, this research revealed the need to develop an instrument that represent a more reliable and valid measure of Transformational Leadership and Transactional Leadership behaviours. This research suggested that the measures could be improved.

22. Innes (2004), "The Influence of Leadership on Perceptions of Organizational, Politics, Job Involvement, and Organizational Commitment". The research examined the effects of leadership on perceptions of organizational politics and the influence of political perceptions on job involvement and organizational commitment". A questionnaire was developed and sent to state government employees yielding 214 responses concerning their experience of their supervisor's leadership style, their perception of the quality of their relationship with their supervisor, their perception of organizational politics, their level of job involvement, and their level of organizational commitment.

The correlation coefficient between the three transformational forms of leadership (charismatic, $r = -.751$, $p < .01$; intellectual stimulation, $r = -.698$, $p < .01$; and individualized consideration, $r = -.695$, $p < .01$) and the perceptions of organizational politics constructs indicated that the greater these leadership style behaviors, the lower

the level of political perceptions, thus supporting hypotheses positing a negative relationship between political perceptions and transformational leadership behaviors.

The transactional forms of leadership yielded a mixed result in relation to perceptions of politics. Contingent reward was negatively related to political perceptions ($r = -.771$, $p < .01$), while active management-by-exception showed a positive relationship with perceptions of politics ($r = .704$, $p < .01$). This indicated that active management-by-exception leadership style predicted political perceptions while contingent reward had an inverse relationship so that the greater that transactional style of leadership style, the less the perceptions of politics. Finally, the laissez-faire construct operationalized by the full range leadership model passive/avoidant scale showed, as expected, a strong positive relationship to Perception of Organizational Politics ($r = .803$, $p < .01$).

The study concluded that leadership constructs are significant predictors of political perceptions having both positive and negative relationships to the perceptions of organizational politics. Further, consistent with prior studies, perceptions of organizational politics were a significant predictor of, and negatively related to, the outcomes of job involvement and organizational commitment.

The study recommended a new research into leadership and politics - research that will restructure the previously negative view of the political processes. Another direction for further research would include examining new elements of effective leadership, including emotional intelligence, impression management, and social skill

23. Brown (2003) "**Employees' Organizational Commitment and Their Perception of Supervisors' Relations-Oriented and Task-Oriented Leadership Behaviours**". The purpose of this research was to investigate the relationship between employees' perceptions of their immediate supervisors' relations-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviours and different types of organizational commitment. Bass & Avolio's (1995) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was used to measure relations-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviours. Meyer & Allen's (1997) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire was used to measure organizational commitment.

Participants in the research included 361 employees who worked for the city of Charlottesville, Virginia. These employees were located in eight departments that varied in the area of technical functioning, size, and academic levels.

Factor analyses, with principal component extraction and vari-max rotation, were performed to determine how the MLQ Form 5X items would load onto a 2-factor model of relations-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviours. Findings resulted in an arrangement of relations-oriented and task-oriented subscales that was different than the arrangement proposed by Bass & Avolio (1995).

Table 3.1 Correlations between Leadership Styles and Organizational Commitment in (Brown, 2003) study

Leadership Style	Organizational Commitment		
	Affective	Normative	Continuance
Idealized Influence-Attribute	0.45**	.33**	0.01
Idealized Influence-Behaviour	0.39**	.32**	0.03
Inspirational Motivation	0.41**	.31**	0.00
Intellectual Stimulation	0.36**	.31**	-.04
Individual Consideration	0.38**	.27**	-0.07
Contingent Reward	0.39**	.30**	-0.08
Management-by-Exception (Active)	-0.08	-0.11*	.11*
Management-by-Exception (Passive)	-0.34**	-0.27**	0.08
Laissez-Faire	-0.39**	-0.18**	0.08

** Correlation is statistically significant with p<.01. * Correlation is statistically significant with p<.05.

The study main findings could be summarized as follows:

1. Relations-oriented leadership behaviours explained the greatest amount of variance in affective commitment, somewhat less variance in normative commitment, and no variance in continuance commitment.

2. The results for task-oriented leadership behaviours revealed the same pattern of relationships with the different types of organizational commitment, only weaker.

The study recommended mainly:

a. Further researches be conducted to develop an instrument that represents a more appropriate measure of relations-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviours and to determine the appropriate names for the two categories of leadership behaviours.

b. Also, in light of the high correlations (r = .69) between affective commitment and normative commitment, the study recommended additional researches to examine this relationship.

24. Wegner (2004), "Organizational Leaders and Empowered Employees: The Relationship between Leadership Styles, Perception of Styles, and the Impact on Organizational Outcomes". The purpose of the study was to determine leadership styles of organizational leaders and empowered employees and to determine the impact that leadership styles had on organizational outcomes. In this quantitative study, a survey of leaders and empowered employees, in three organizations was conducted. A questionnaire was utilized to collect data to address four hypotheses, 392 valid questionnaires were received. Main findings were:

1. The means of the perceived transformational leadership style subscales were: idealized influence attributed 5.54; idealized influence behaviour, 5.6; inspirational motivation, 6.06; intellectual stimulation, 4.98; and individual consideration, 4.76.

2. The means of transactional leadership style subscales were: contingent reward, 5.24; management-by-exception (active), 3.62; management-by-exception (passive), 2.5; and laissez-faire leadership style was 1.8.

3. The means of outcomes of leadership were 4.8 for extra effort, 5.32 for effectiveness, and 5.62 for satisfaction.

4. Empowered employees' self-perceived leadership styles had a positive impact on organizational outcomes;

5. Organizational leaders did not perceive their leadership styles had an positive impact on organizational outcomes;

6. Empowered employees increased their organizational outcomes, as the leader's displayed behaviours of transformational leadership; and

7. Organizational leader's perceived organizational outcomes to increase as the empowered employee's displayed transformational leadership.

The study finally concluded that leaders do not realize the impact their leadership styles had on subordinate efforts. It recommended including leadership training for both recognized leaders and empowered employees.

25. Villanueva, (2003) "Framing Leadership & Commitment: An Analysis of Perceived Leadership Frames and the Relationship of Organizational Commitment". The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between leadership frames and organizational commitment. The study targeted employees from a large multi-national telecommunications organization located in the south-western part of United States. A questionnaire covering leadership frames and organizational commitment, and was dispatched to 105 employees, while 87 were retuned and one rejected. i.e. N=77.

The study summarizes the leadership frames into four groups: Human Resources Dimensions, Symbolic Dimensions, Structural Dimensions and Political Dimensions. The structural frame has the highest reported mean score (0.762), while the symbolic frame mean score (0.690) had the lowest.

The findings indicated a statistically significant correlation (at the 0.05 level) between organizational commitment and the frames of leadership, but a weak relationship (ranges from .29 to .34). Further, only through a more rigorous stepwise regression was the relationship between the human resource, political frames, and OC found to be significant. The political and symbolic frames showed no relationship to the construct of organizational commitment. Further, demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, marital status, educational attainment and education) showed no significant relationship to the construct of OC. The demographic variable of age did show a statistically significant relationship to the political frame of leadership.

The study recommended the usage of a different organizational commitment measures, instead of the current used one – Mowday, Porter and Steers- which was designed to measure attitudinal dimensions of commitment within an organization. An alternative instrument measuring behavioural or continuance dimensions of commitment will yield more significant results.

26. Stumpf (2003) "**The Relationship of perceived Leadership Styles of North Carolina Country Extension Directors' to Job Satisfaction of Country Extension Professionals".** The study examined the relationship of perceived leadership styles of North Carolina County Extension Directors' (CED) to job satisfaction of County Extension professionals. The relationship between these two variables and the selected demographics characteristics were examined.

Bass and Avolio's, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Rater Form), leadership survey instrument, the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale, and a demographic questionnaire were electronically mailed to 232 randomly selected North Carolina Cooperative Extension professionals. Responses were received from 130 Extension professionals.The study main results, were:

1. Transformational characteristics of idealized influence (attributed), individualized influence (behavioral), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration, CED's are perceived as demonstrating these behaviors less frequently by more than one standard deviation.

2. The transactional characteristic, management-by-exception (active) fell one standard deviation higher than the MLQ norm, and management-by-exception (passive) and laissez faire exceeded one standard deviation above the norm. Thus, slightly more than 33% of CED's are perceived to demonstrate the transactional leadership behavior, i.e the director were exercising transactional leadership style more than transformational leadership style.

3. In addition, CED's are perceived to demonstrate the negative leadership behaviors of MBEP (Management-By-Exception Passive) and LF (Laissez Faire) 33% more frequently than the established MLQ norms.

4. This study indicates, also, significant differences in the job satisfaction of Extension professionals' based upon the perceived leadership style of their County Extension Director. These differences most often occurred in total job satisfaction. The perceived transformational and transactional leadership behaviours accounted for 32% of the variation in County Extension professionals' total job satisfaction scores. The best two variable model, laissez-faire and individualized consideration explained 45% of the variation in County Extension professionals' total job satisfaction.

5. The research study supported a relationship between CED's perceived transformational and transactional leadership behaviors and Extension professionals' job satisfaction. Transformational leadership characteristics influence agents' job satisfaction, slightly more that the transactional leadership characteristics. CED's perceived to have laissez-faire characteristic had negative but significant relationships.

The study recommended supervisors who wish to increase the job satisfaction of their subordinates should consider concentrating on their transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. It also, recommended further studies to include performance indicators in the interaction between perceived leadership behaviors and job satisfaction.

27. Ayman (2003) "**The Effects of Transformational and Transactional Leadership on Affective Organizational Commitment**". The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of transactional and transformational leadership styles on subordinate affective commitment. Ninety-three employees working in the manufacturing industry completed measures of transactional and transformational leadership (MLQ-5X Short, Bass & Avolio, 1995) as well as affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990).
The study main results were:

1. For the three transactional leadership subscales of the MLQ, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients ranged from .54 to .68. For the five transformational leadership subscales, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients ranged from .72 to .82. Cronbach's alpha for the measure of affective commitment was .78.

2. Transformational leadership had incremental value in predicting affective commitment beyond transactional leadership.

3. Inspirational Motivation was the subscale of transformational leadership that made the strongest unique incremental contribution to predicting affective commitment.

The study main recommendations were:

a. Combining different leadership theories in this fashion could facilitate more in depth research into the meanings of the different MLQ subscales in different situations.

b. As the importance of strategic planning, inspirational motivation and eliciting affective commitment to an organization become more important. Affective commitment to a superior might produce individual effort, but inspirational motivation may produce effort that is more aligned with the goals of the organization as a whole. Working across team boundaries to accomplish larger objectives will becomes easier to promote when the focus of commitment is less at the leader follower dyad level. This is something which should be considered when training leaders, and fostering a leadership climate within an organization.

28. Cheng (2003) "**A Structural Equation Modelling Analysis of Leadership Behaviour, Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction of Employees in Taiwanese Health Clubs**". The purpose of this study was to establish a comprehensive casual model for leadership behaviour, organizational commitment and job satisfaction and to examine it with empirical data from Taiwanese Health Clubs. 469 valid questionnaires were obtained from 30 health clubs, randomly selected. The study main results were:

1. In testing structural relationships, the results showed that leadership practices directly influence ($r=0.34$) job satisfaction and indirectly influence ($r=0.36$) it through organizational commitment.

2. The results also showed that organizational commitment directly influences ($r= 0.55$) job satisfaction. It is worth noting that leadership practices have a direct effect on job satisfaction, but the indirect effect is larger than its direct effect.

3. The study concluded that establishment of a higher level of organizational commitment may be more important than focusing only on job satisfaction.

The study recommended that improvement of predictive validity and parsimony of the model, developed in this study, needs to be tested in consideration for future research that uses a cross-validation fashion.

29. Rowden (2000) "The relationship between charismatic leadership behaviours and organizational commitment". The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between perceived charismatic leadership behaviours (six components identified by Conger and Kanunago) and organizational commitment (two components identified by Porter and Smith). A total of 245 of "white-collar" workers from six organizations in USA participated in the study. The main results were:

1. The five of the six charismatic leadership factors were significant correlated with the two commitment factors.

2. The leader's sensitivity to member's needs is related to organizational commitment. It further explained that it is unlikely that someone would be committed to an organization where its leader was not attuned to his or her needs; people feel they owe something to those who satisfy some of their needs.

3. Having a clear vision and articulating it, is related to commitment.

4. Managers need to be clear about the goals and values of the organization.

5. Older people tended to be more committed to the organization. The correlations suggest that there is a significant correlation with value commitment rather than commitment to stay as no other opportunities available.

6. The relationship between vision and articulation and commitment implies that a new aspect of leadership can now be investigated and measured.

The study suggested that:
- Managers should become clear about the goals and values of their organization.
- The strategic role of Human Resources should be a change agent in the organizations. By modelling the charismatic behaviours, HR practitioners may increase the positive effects of their programs on participants' skills, the extent of skill transfer to the workplace, and improved organizational outcomes and commitment.

Section three: Assessment of Previous Studies

Leadership and organizational commitment received considerable attention from industrial and organizational psychologists, management scientists, and sociologists. Much of the interest in analyzing leadership styles and organizational commitment stems from concern for the behavioural consequences that are hypothesized to result from satisfaction that associated with the perceived leadership behaviours and/or organizational commitment.

Among other topics, leadership style and/or organizational commitment have been argued to be related to productivity, attendance at work, turnover, retirement, participation, labour militancy, sympathy for unions, and psychological withdrawal from work.

In fact, most of the referred researches, studied, in one way or another, leadership and/or organizational commitment; however, none of them had considered the perceived leadership style in view of full-range leadership theory and its effects on organizational commitment as multi-dimensional construct. They, however, tackled both issues, either separately or from different perspectives.

Although there have been calls for research that uses a multilevel framework when investigating leadership, most of the referred studies have examined the leadership style based on behavioural theory that discussed it traditionally, as: democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire styles (Abu Samra & Ghneim, 2007; El-Masri, 2006; and El-Khatib, 2004). Others, had based their studies on situational leadership theory utilizing Hersey and Blanchard model, (Abu-Nada, 2007; and Wu, et al, 2006), however, this model received serious criticisms on its theoretical and empirical facets.

A number of studies had concentrated more on the effects of demographic variables of the perceived leadership styles (Janus, 2008; Emery & Baker, 2007; El-Masri, 2006; Moore & Rudd, 2006; Hughes, 2005 El-Khatib, 2004; and Stumpf, 2003), more than relation with other behavioural factors.

Although (Mayer and Allen, 1997) had clarified the importance of scrutinizing organizational commitment as a multi-dimensional construct (comprising affective, continuance and normative commitment), most of the referred studies had analyzed the organizational commitment as a one-dimensional concept (Abu-Nada, 2007; Al-Ahmadi, 2004; Innes, 2004, Rowden, 2000). Though (Khashaly, 2003) studied the relationship of the perceived leadership style with a multi-dimensional organizational

commitment, he considered leadership styles back to behavioural theory (autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire). Some studies had verified one segment or more of organizational commitment (Kuvaas, 2006; Ayman, 2003; and Rowden, 2000).

Few researches had studied the leadership style in view of the recent leadership models, however, they tackled it in a separate fashion; either transformational or transactional (Walambwa, et al, 2008; Nemanich & Keller, 2007; Huang, et al, 2006; and Shore, Sy & Strauss, 2006).

Little studies examined leadership style in view of full-range leadership theory, however, they linked it to different aspects such as organizational culture (Eppard, 2004); or with outcomes (Wegner, 2004). Brown, 2003, studied full-range leadership theory with organizational commitment, though she had analysed the nine factors of leadership styles into two main clusters: behaviour-oriented and task-oriented leadership styles

Some studies had tested the validity of a leadership style or commitment for specific ethnicity / geographical location (Abdul Karim & Noor, 2006; and Huang, et al, 2006).

Cheng (2003) studied the organizational commitment as multi-dimensional construct, though he utilized Leadership Practices Scale (LPS), developed by Posner and Kouzes, in 1988; while (Villanueva, 2003), used attitudinal dimensions of commitment, who at the end of the study recommended alternative measurement of organizational commitment that examine behavioural facts.

Build on previous study valuable results and recommendations, the researcher designed this study to examine the leadership style, in view of the full-range leadership theory, with its all nine factors considering its coverage of leadership's behaviours ranging from charismatic, inspiration and motivation to rewarding and avoidant styles; and examine the effect of the perceived leadership style on affective, continuance or normative commitment. This verification is very essential to check the correlation of each factor thereof with each type of commitment, to formulate a strong strategy to build a competent team able to achieve goals beyond expectations; bearing in mind UNRWA's special mission and its recent OD initiative.

Chapter 4 – Research Methodology

In this chapter, the researcher presented in details the adopted methodology, population and sample selection, tool development – questionnaire- and design including data measurement and statistical tools. In addition, the researcher presented the results of tool reliability and stability.

4.1   Research Methodology

Antonakis et al. (2003) recommended associating descriptive technique together with quantitative analysis, to identify and explain "what and why" (Antonkis, et al, 2003, p. 286). The researcher adopted this analytical descriptive approach, in studying the effect of the perceived leadership style on organizational commitment.

4.2   Research Population and Sample

At an earlier stage of the study, the researcher aimed at targeting UNRWA staff located in the Gaza compound (Headquarters and Gaza Field). However, with the availability of modern communication facilities, the researcher decided to expand it to include all UNRWA fields in the area of operations.

Table 4.1 Population and Sample

Area of Operation	Study Society	Sample	% sample of the Society	Responses				% Response of Sample
				Paper	Electronic	Rejected	Total	
Gaza & HQG	548	310	57%	147	131	11	289	94%
Jordan & HQA	245	110	45%	22	64	8	94	85%
SAR	168	80	48%	17	48	4	69	86%
Lebanon	190	90	47%	20	50	5	75	83%
West Bank	235	120	51%	28	62	9	99	83%
T O T A L	1,386	710		234	355	37	626	
AVERAGE			51%					88%

The study population, thus, was UNRWA local staff in Gaza Strip, West Bank, Jordan, Syria and Lebanon, which amounted at 1,386 staff members.

The sample was selected randomly, 51%, from the study population, staff at grades 05 to 20 ([1]) who were working in the Field offices or headquarters; teaching staff located in different schools were excluded, due to the difficulty to capture these locations.

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[1] . UNRWA grading system is designed from grade 01 – the lowest- to grade 20 – the highest. The researcher believed that staff at graded 01-05 concludes manual workers, whose ability to response accurately is doubted, considering the fact that the post requirements for such posts are less than secondary education.

A questionnaire was dispatched to the sample (710), through the UNRWA Intranet, together with a narrative explaining the purpose, the importance of the study, the method of filling, and assurance of confidentiality of data provided. An additional email was sent, reminding and giving the choice to fill the questionnaire electronically-intranet - or save an Ms-Word document, attached to the email, and send it back either by UNRWA pouch ([1]) or email.

626 questionnaires were received, however, only 589 ones were valid, where 234 responses in Ms-word (paper) format and 355 responses in electronic format, representing 83% retrieval rate which comes close with (Hughes, 2005 and Innes, 2004).

4.3 Tool Development and Design

Considering its ability to collect data from various locations with minimal cost (compared to other data collection tool), the searcher adopted questionnaire as data collection method.

With an adequate approval from the Commissioner-General Office, the researcher contacted Chief, Information System Office in order to utilize the **email and intranet** facilities. The researcher designed a questionnaire to fit the intranet equipment, so as respondents needn't to fill normal paper work, the system will compile all data in an excel sheet format, rather. The questionnaire content was:

4.3.1 Demographic data

This part includes 11 paragraphs aimed at identifying the demographic characteristics of the sample. It was designed to check the work place, department (to insure rational distribution), gender, age, marital status, family size, academic qualifications, number of years experience with UNRWA, grade (which indicates the salary level) and number of training courses during the current job. (The questionnaire is attached as appendix-4).

4.3.2 Leadership Style

The researcher decided to use the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which was initially designed by Bass (1985) to include five subscales of charisma, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward, and management-by-exception. Later, Bass & Avolio (1990) introduced the MLQ which contained six subscales: charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation,

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[1]. UNRWA internal mailing system for official correspondence, where no charging fees.

individualized consideration, contingent reward, and management-by-exception. In 1995 and 1997, Avolio and Bass presented a revised version of MLQ, which was enhanced to include nine subscales, idealized influence (attributed) idealized influence (behaviour), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), management-by-exception (passive), and laissez-faire.

Though the researcher adopted MLQ from Stumpf (2003) study, he had translated and made some alterations and amendments, in light of discussion with the Supervisor and Jurors. Each component of the leadership style construct - the nine factors- has four paragraphs that determine the existence of the relevant factor as perceived by UNRWA staff. (The questionnaire is attached as appendix-4).

To ensure reliability of responses, the paragraphs were not set in a group pattern so as avoiding the "persuasive fashion". i.e. if paragraphs related to transformational leadership style grouped together, after 5-6 paragraphs, respondent will be acting under the same trend of answering: either positive or negative. Each paragraph was given a key shows where it belongs, (Table 4.2 refers); ultimately, this fact was considered when analysing and interpreting the results.

Table 4.2 Key of Leadership Dimensions

Leadership Style	Leadership Construct	Items
Transformational	Idealized Influence (Behaviour)	6, 14, 23 & 34
	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	10, 18, 21 & 25
	Inspirational Motivation	9, 13, 26 & 36
	Intellectual Stimulation	2, 8, 30 & 32
	Individual Consideration	15, 19, 29 & 31
Transactional	Contingent Reward	1,11, 16 & 35
	Management-by-Exception (Active)	4, 22, 24 & 27
	Management-by-Exception (Passive)	3, 12, 17 & 20
Laissez Faire	Laissez Faire	5, 7, 28 & 33

Many studies had utilized MLQ, provided its stability and reliability (Namenach & Keller, 2007; Mathebula, 2004; Burbach, 2004; Stumpf, 2003, Brown, 2003; and Lawrence, 2000). Antonakis, et al, using largely homogenous business samples, found support for stability and reliability of the nine-factor leadership model proposed by Avolio and Bass (Antonakis, et al, 2003).

4.3.3 Organizational Commitment

This part of the questionnaire was design to examine the organizational commitment of UNRWA staff. Meyer and Allen model was utilized to analyse the mutidemensional organizational commitment, as many researchers had utilized (Abdul-Karim & Noore, 2006; Brown, 2003; and Cheng, 2003) or recommended it at the end of their studies. (Villanueva, 2003).

The researcher had adopted the questionnaire from (Cheng, 2003) who developed the study instrument based on Mayer and Allen (1997) questionnaire. Mayer and Allen (1997) had developed their instrument to measure the three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment (Affective, Continuance & Normative). Cheng has summarized the original questionnaire from 24 paragraphs to 18 paragraphs. However, the researcher added two paragraphs (19 & 20) to strengthen the affective and continuance commitment measures. The researcher, believed that paragraph #19 "*I feel sorrow when talking with others about my job*" and paragraph #20 "*I continue to work with UNRWA for the many advantages I find compared with other employers*" are important to be included in this questionnaire, for UNRWA staff, who most of them are refugees, and these psychological constituents of "feeling" and "financial" factors are important to determine the level of commitment. The researcher had translated and made amendments as discussed with the Supervisor and Jurors. (The questionnaire is attached as appendix-4).

Similar to the leadership part of the questionnaire, the paragraphs were mixed. In addition, some paragraphs (9, 12, 16 & 19) were reversed, i.e. they were re-written using the opposite meaning. At the time of analysis and interpretation, this fact was taken into consideration. Table (4.3) shows the paragraphs' key together with the reversed ones.

Table 4.3 Key of Organizational Commitment Dimension

Organizational Commitment	Item Number	Comments
Affective Commitment	1, 4, 7, 10, 13, 16r & 19r	"r" reversed item
Continuance Commitment	2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17 & 20	"r" reversed item
Normative Commitment	3, 6, 9r, 12r, 15 & 18	"r" reversed item

4.4 Data Measurement

In an attempt to get more realistic results, the researcher selected the continuous scale style. The continuous scale uses scale from 1 to 10, where number 10 represents "completely agree", while number 1 shows "completely disagree". Table 4.4 illustrates scale rating.

Table 4.4 Scale Rating

Item	Completely Disagree		Completely Agree
Scale	1	…	10

4.5 Statistical Analysis Tools

To select the suitable statistical tools, the distribution of data must be identified: normal distribution or not. Since the size of the sample was 589, which exceeds the limit, as set by Central Limit Theorem ([1]), the researcher concluded that the collected data followed the normal distribution. Therefore, the following parametric statistical tools, using SPSS software package, were utilized:

1. Frequency and descriptive analysis.

2. Cronbach's alpha for reliability of the questionnaire.

3. Pearson coefficient correlation for testing the relationship among variables.

4. One sample T-test was used to determine if the mean of a paragraph is significantly different from the hypothesized value 6.

5. The Independent Samples t-test was used to see if two means are significantly different from each other.

6. The one- way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used test if any of several means are significantly different from each other.

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[1] . Central Limit Theorem (CLT) states that the sampling distribution of a sample mean is approximately distributed normally if we draw a large sample form any give population. Sample size is considered to be large if it is greater than 30. (Moore, et al, 2003).

7.   Bonferroni test is used for multiple comparisons between the means.

4.6   Tool Validity and Reliability

Although the tool was based on other studies, it was translated from English into Arabic some paragraphs were added/ changed to match the environment where the study was run and different scale was adopted. Therefore, the tool validity and reliability is required and hence, was verified externally and internally.

4.6.1   External Validity

In order to ensure high level of validity, the researcher varied the source of judgment. Professors and specialist from Gaza, Jordan, Lebanon and West Bank were communicated. Appendix-5 specifies the list of jurors whom the researcher contacted, their place of work and their scientific degrees.

The researcher had studied the Jurors' comments and proposed changes, and in consultation with the Supervisor, incorporated the valid of them into the final questionnaire version.

4.6.2 Internal Validity

Internal consistency and validity of the questionnaire was measured by a scouting sample, which consisted of 50 questionnaires through measuring the questionnaire validity and reliability. Validity refers to the degree an instrument measures what it was supposed to (Pilot and Hungler,1985). Statistical validity tests include criterion-related validity, construct validity and reliability of the instrument.

4.6.2.1 Criterion Related Validity

To insure the internal validity and consistency of the paragraphs, the Criterion-related validity test was used, which measures the correlation coefficient between each paragraph in one field and the whole field

Table 4.5 Correlation Coefficient of Idealized Influence (Behaviour)

No.	Paragraphs	Pearson Correlation	P-Value (Sig.)
1.	Talks about their most important values and believes.	.372(*)	0.004
2.	Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	.833(*)	0.000
3.	Considers the moral and ethical consequences of his / her decisions.	.851(*)	0.000
4.	Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission and supports team spirit.	.862(*)	0.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (4.5) presents the correlation coefficient for each paragraph of Idealized Influence (Behaviour) and the total of this part. The p-values for all paragraphs are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of this field are significant at α = 0.05. Therefore, it can be said that the paragraphs of this style are consistent and valid to measure what they were set for.

Table 4.6 Correlation Coefficient of Idealized Influence (Attributed)

No.	Paragraphs	Pearson Correlation	P-Value (Sig.)
1.	Instils pride in staff for being associated with him/her	.864(*)	0.000
2.	Sacrifices his/her self-interest for the good of the group.	.804(*)	0.000
3.	Have leadership skills that build my respect.	.928(*)	0.000
4.	Displays sense of power and confidence.	.587(*)	0.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (4.6) presents the correlation coefficient for each paragraph of Idealized Influence (Attributed) and the total of this part. The p-values are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of this field are significant at α = 0.05. Therefore, it can be said that the paragraphs of Idealized Influence (Attributed) are consistent and valid to measure what they were set for.

Table 4.7 Correlation Coefficient of Inspirational Motivation

No.	Paragraphs	Pearson Correlation	P-Value (Sig.)
1.	Talks optimistically about the future.	.821(*)	0.000
2.	Talks enthusiastically when setting goals and objectives to be accomplished.	.855(*)	0.000
3.	Articulates a compelling vision of the future.	.918(*)	0.000
4.	Shows confidence that goals will be achieved.	.648(*)	0.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (4.7) presents the correlation coefficient for each paragraph of Inspirational Motivation and the total of this part. The p-values are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of this field are significant at α = 0.05. Therefore, it can be said that the paragraphs of this style are consistent and valid to measure what they were set for.

Table 4.8 Correlation Coefficient of Intellectual Stimulation

No.	Paragraphs	Pearson Correlation	P-Value (Sig.)
1.	Re-examine critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate.	.801(*)	0.000
2.	Seeks different perspectives when solving problems.	.905(*)	0.000
3.	Gets staff to look at problems from different angles.	.910(*)	0.000
4.	Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	.945(*)	0.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (4.8) presents the correlation coefficient for each paragraph of Intellectual Stimulation and the total of this part. The p-values (Sig.) are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of this field are significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. Therefore, it can be said that the paragraphs of this style are consistent and valid to measure what they were set for.

Table 4.9 Correlation Coefficient of Individual Consideration

No.	Paragraphs	Pearson Correlation	P-Value (Sig.)
1.	Spends time teaching and coaching staff.	.741(*)	0.000
2.	Treats me as an individual rather that just as a member of a group.	.803(*)	0.000
3.	Consider staff's individual special needs, abilities, and aspirations.	.897(*)	0.000
4.	Helps staff to improve and develop their abilities and skills.	.891(*)	0.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (4.9) presents the correlation coefficient for each paragraph of Individual Consideration and the total of this part. The p-values are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of this field are significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. Therefore, it can be said that the paragraphs of this style are consistent and valid to measure what they were set for.

Table 4.10 Correlation Coefficient of Contingent Reward

No.	Paragraphs	Pearson Correlation	P-Value (Sig.)
1.	Provides staff with assistance in exchange of their efforts.	.890(*)	0.000
2.	Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.	.862(*)	0.000
3.	Makes clear what staff can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.	.854(*)	0.000
4.	Expresses satisfaction when staff meet expectations.	.863(*)	0.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (4.10) presents the correlation coefficient for each paragraph of Contingent Reward and the total of this part. The p-values are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of this field are significant at α = 0.05. Therefore, it can be said that the paragraphs of this style are consistent and valid to measure what they were set for.

Table 4.11 Correlation Coefficient of Management-by-Exception (Active)

No.	Paragraphs	Pearson Correlation	P-Value (Sig.)
1.	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.	.449(*)	0.001
2.	Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures.	.783(*)	0.000
3.	Keeps track of staff's mistakes.	.425(*)	0.001
4.	Directs staff attention toward failures to meet standards.	.796(*)	0.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (4.11) presents the correlation coefficient for each paragraph Management-by-Exception (Active) and the total of this part. The p-values are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of this field are significant at α = 0.05. Therefore, it can be said that the paragraphs of this style are consistent and valid to measure what they were set for.

Table 4.12 Correlation Coefficient Management-by-Exception (Passive)

No.	Paragraphs	Pearson Correlation	P-Value (Sig.)
1.	Fails to interfere until problems become serious.	.690(*)	0.000
2.	Waits for things to go wrong before taking action.	.923(*)	0.000
3.	Shows that s/he is a firm believer in "if it not broke, don't fix it".	.871(*)	0.000
4.	Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action.	.856(*)	0.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (4.12) presents the correlation coefficient for each paragraph of Management-by-Exception (Passive) and the total of this part. The p-values are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of this field are significant at α = 0.05. Therefore, it can be said that the paragraphs of this style are consistent and valid to measure what they were set for.

Table 4.13 Correlation Coefficient of Laissez Faire

No.	Paragraphs	Pearson Correlation	P-Value (Sig.)
1.	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise.	.756(*)	0.000
2.	Is absent when needed.	.786(*)	0.000
3.	Avoids making decisions	.752(*)	0.000
4.	Delays responding to urgent questions.	.799(*)	0.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (4.13) presents the correlation coefficient for each paragraph of Laissez Faire and the total of this part. The p-values are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of this field are significant at α = 0.05. Therefore, it can be said that the paragraphs of this style are consistent and valid to measure what they were set for.

Table 4.14 Correlation Coefficient of Affective Commitment

No.	Paragraphs	Pearson Correlation	P-Value (Sig.)
1.	I will be happy if I spend the rest of my career with UNRWA.	.760(*)	0.000
2.	I feel that if UNRWA has a problem, it is my problem as well.	.788(*)	0.000
3.	I feel as if I belong to the "family" in this organization	.769(*)	0.000
4.	I feel emotionally attached to this organization.	.539(*)	0.000
5.	It means a great deal to me, personally, to work with UNRWA.	.633(*)	0.000
6.	My work with UNRWA gives me a strong sense of belonging.	.723(*)	0.000
7.	I feel proud when talking with others about my job.	.618(*)	0.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (4.14) presents the correlation coefficient for each paragraph of Affective Commitment and the total of this part. The p-values are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of this field are significant at α = 0.05. Therefore, it can be said that the paragraphs of this style are consistent and valid to measure what they were set for.

Table 4.15 Correlation Coefficient of Continuance Commitment

No.	Paragraphs	Pearson Correlation	P-Value (Sig.)
1.	Even if I wanted to, it would be difficult for me to leave this organization.	.532(*)	0.000
2.	If I decided to leave UNRWA right now, it would be too disruptive to my life.	.783(*)	0.000
3.	It is as much necessity as desire that keeps me working here.	.734(*)	0.000
4.	I feel that if I left, there would be too few job opportunities available to me.	.782(*)	0.000

Table 4.15 Continued

5.	The lack of available alternatives would be one of the few negative consequences of leaving UNRWA.	.897(*)	0.000
6.	The fact that leaving UNRWA would require considerable personal sacrifice is one of the reasons I continue to work here.	.573(*)	0.000
7.	I continue to work with UNRWA for the many advantages I find compared with other employers.	.736(*)	0.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (4.15) presents the correlation coefficient for each paragraph of Continuance Commitment and the total of this part. The p-values are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of this field are significant at α = 0.05. Therefore, it can be said that the paragraphs of this style are consistent and valid to measure what they were set for.

Table 4.16 Correlation Coefficient of Normative Commitment

No.	Paragraphs	Pearson Correlation	P-Value (Sig.)
1.	I feel obliged to remain working here.	.607(*)	0.000
2.	I don't feel that it would be right for me to leave my workplace now, even if it were to my advantage to do so.	.357(*)	0.005
3.	If I left my job now, I would feel guilty.	.608(*)	0.000
4.	I feel this organization deserves all my commitment.	.471(*)	0.000
5.	I have a sense of obligation to my colleagues that prevents me from leaving UNRWA.	.571(*)	0.000
6.	I feel that I owe a great deal to UNRWA	.447(*)	0.001

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (4.16) presents the correlation coefficient for each paragraph of Normative Commitment and the total of this part. The p-values are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of this field are significant at α = 0.05. Therefore, it can be said that the paragraphs of this style are consistent and valid to measure what they were set for.

4.6.2.2 Structure Validity
The structure validity of the questionnaire is achieved by testing the validity of each field and the validity of the whole questionnaire. It measures the correlation coefficient between each field and all similar scale fields of the questionnaire.

4.6.2.2.1 Structure Validity of Leadership Style
The researcher assessed the leadership style's structure validity by calculating the correlation coefficients of each leadership style of the questionnaire and the whole leadership styles.

Table 4.17 Correlation Coefficient of each Leadership Style and the whole Leadership Style

Dimension	Pearson Correlation	P-Value (Sig.)
Leadership style: Transformational	0.952(*)	0.000
Leadership style: Transactional	0.869(*)	0.000
Leadership style: Laissez-faire	-0.228(*)	0.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (4.17) clarifies the correlation coefficient for each leadership style and the whole of leadership styles. The p-values are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of all the fields are significant at α = 0.05. Therefore, it can be said that each of the leadership style is valid to measure what it was set for to achieve one of the main study's objectives. It is worth noting that the co-efficient factor of Leadership style Laissez-fair, was negative, and significant at α = 0.05, which matches the study literature.

4.6.2.2.2 Structure Validity of Organizational Commitment

The researcher assessed the organizational commitment's structure validity by calculating the correlation coefficient of each organizational commitment construct with the whole organizational commitment.

Table 4.18 Correlation Coefficient of each Organizational Commitment Construct and the whole of Organizational Commitment

Dimension	Pearson Correlation	P-Value
Affective Commitment	.675(*)	0.000
Continuance Commitment	.557(*)	0.000
Normative Commitment	.761(*)	0.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (4.18) shows that the correlation coefficient for each leadership style and the whole of organizational commitment. The p-values are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of all the fields are significant at α = 0.05. Therefore, it can be said that each of the organizational commitment is valid to measure what it was set for to achieve one of the study's main objectives.

4.6.2.3 Reliability of the Tool

The reliability of an instrument is the degree of consistency which measures the attribute, that is supposed to evaluate (Polit & Hunger,1985). The less variation an instrument produces in repeated measurements of an attribute, the higher its reliability.

Reliability can be equated with the stability, consistency, or dependability of a measuring tool. Cronbach's alpha coefficient method was used to measure the reliability of the questionnaire between each field and the mean of the whole fields of the questionnaire. The normal range of Cronbach's coefficient alpha value sits between 0.0 and + 1.0; and a higher value reflects a prominent degree of internal consistency (Polit & Hunger,1985).

Table 4.19 Cronbach's Alpha (Reliability) of the Questionnaire

Dimension	Cronbach's Alpha
Idealized Influence (Behaviour)	0.732
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	0.815
Inspirational Motivation	0.864
Intellectual Stimulation	0.902
Individual Consideration	0.864
Transformational Leadership Style	**0.963**
Contingent Reward	0.868
Management-by-Exception (Active)	0.667
Management-by-Exception (Passive)	0.716
Transactional Leadership Style	**0.724**
Laissez Faire	0.755
Total Leadership Style	**0.918**
Affective Commitment	0.812
Continuance Commitment	0.848
Normative Commitment	0.698
Organizational Commitment	**0.738**
All Paragraphs	**0.939**

Reviewing table (4.19) reveals that the values of Cronbach's alpha for transformational leadership subscales equal, 0.732 for idealized influence (behaviour), 0.815 for idealized influence (attributed), 0.864 for inspirational motivation, 0.902 for intellectual stimulation and 0.864 for individual consideration. The coefficient factor for transformational leadership style equals 0.963.

Cronbach's alpha for transactional subscales equal, 0.868 for contingent reward, 0.667 for management-by-exception (active), and 0.716 for management-by-exception (passive). The coefficient factor for transactional leadership style equals 0.724. The coefficient factor for laissez faire equals 0.755. The overall reliability of paragraphs related to leadership style equals 0.918, which is very close to 1.00, and thereby considered strong reliable, stable and consistent instrument.

Leadership constructs' reliability goes with (Innes, 2004), where alpha coefficient factor for leadership style was ranging from 0.716 to .918. It also goes with (Wegner, 2004), where alpha Cronbach coefficients for leadership styles and outcomes, ranges form .722 to .779. Ayman (2003) found the reliability factors for the five transformational leadership subscales, ranged from .72 to .82. (Brown, 2003) found Cronbach alpha for leadership style ranged from 0.67 to 0.79.

Cronbach's alpha coefficient for organizational commitment subscales equal 0.812 for affective commitment, 0.848 for continuance commitment and 0.698 for normative commitment. Coefficient factor for the overall organizational commitment equals 0.738; which considered strong reliability factor. This goes close with Abdul Karim and Noor (2006), where they concluded alpha Cronbach coefficient for affective commitment and continuance commitment, .81 and .78, respectively. (Shore, Sy and Strauss, 2006) found Cronbach alpha coefficient for affective commitment was .87.

In conclusion, the alpha Cronbach's coefficient factor for all dimensions equals 0.939, which is very close to +1.00, and thus, the whole questionnaire is considered reliable. Thereby, the researcher ensured the validity, reliability and stability of both instruments; leadership style questionnaire (MLQ) and organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ), before their distribution to the sample.

4.7 Research Time Frame

The researcher's primary plan was to conclude the study within five to seven months, between May – December 2008. However, many difficulties impeded the original plan; these difficulties are summarized as follow:

a. Few Arabic and International studies had contended directly the full range leadership theory with the organizational commitment as multidimensional construct. The researcher had to subscribe in some electronic libraries for limited duration and downloaded the required materials.

b. While approaching UNRWA staff in other Fields – than Gaza – has an advantage of widening the work society, it impeded direct contact with them. This led to a severe difficulty to have timely responses; the questionnaire was posted in the intranet for one month derived a small number of replies. Then it was extended twice, one month each, with three email messages to remind staff of the importance of the study and to encourage them. Analysing reasons for delayed responses, could be concluded, in addition to the indirect contact with the sample, as follows:

  i. Some of the staff were scared to "rate" their supervisors. Although the researcher had explained, assured and guaranteed the anonymity of replies, he had some calls, simply said "we don't need problems". On the other hand some staff were extremely rigorous, so as give the extreme rating, inappropriately, which resulted in disqualifying their response.

  ii. Placing the questionnaire in the intranet – UNRWA official internal web site- rendered it the impression of formality, thus discouraged staff to response.

  iii. By blending paragraphs and reversing others, to ensure accurate results, an additional burden was added to the respondents. This encouraged some to refrain filling the questionnaire.

c. The war on Gaza during December 2008/January 2009, whether during the its horrible time or the days after, affected the productivity and delayed accomplishment as planned.

Therefore, it took the researcher twelve months to accomplish this study. The time frame invested was as follows:

♦   May - July 2008, literature review;

♦   July – August 2008, tool design and validity;

♦   September – November 2008, data collection;

♦   December 2008 – April 2009, data analysis, interpretation and discussion; and

♦   April – May 2009, drawing conclusion, recommendation and finalization.

Chapter five: Data Analysis, Interpretations and Discussion

In this chapter, the researcher presented qualitative description of the study sample, the dominant leadership style and the level and type of organizational commitment; then examined the correlation of the perceived leadership style of UNRWA supervisors and their subordinates' level and type of commitment. Finally, the researcher assessed the demographic characteristics' relation to the study variables: leadership style and organizational commitment. Through qualitative and quantitative analyses, the researcher tested and validated the pre-set hypotheses and answered the study's questions.

Section one: Descriptive Analysis of the Sample

This section is planned to describe and analyse the features and characteristics of the target sample (N=589), including location, gender, marital status, family size, academic qualifications, age, years of experience with UNRWA and number of training courses.

5.1.1 Place of Work/ Geographical Location

Table 5.1 Distribution of Respondents by Geographical Location

Place of Work / Geographical location	Count	Percent
Gaza	278	47.2
West Bank	89	15.1
Jordan	86	14.6
SAR	69	11.7
Lebanon	67	11.4
Total	**589**	**100.0**

Reviewing table (5.1) shows the big portion of the sample was from Gaza Field, 47.2% of the total sample, followed by West Bank, 15.1%, then Syria and Lebanon, with 11.7 and 11.4% respectively. These figures match the distribution of the total number of UNRWA staff (society) among the Fields, figure (5.1) refers, where it shows that the society total figures adequately represented in the sample.

Figure (5.1) Distribution of Study Society among Fields/Locations
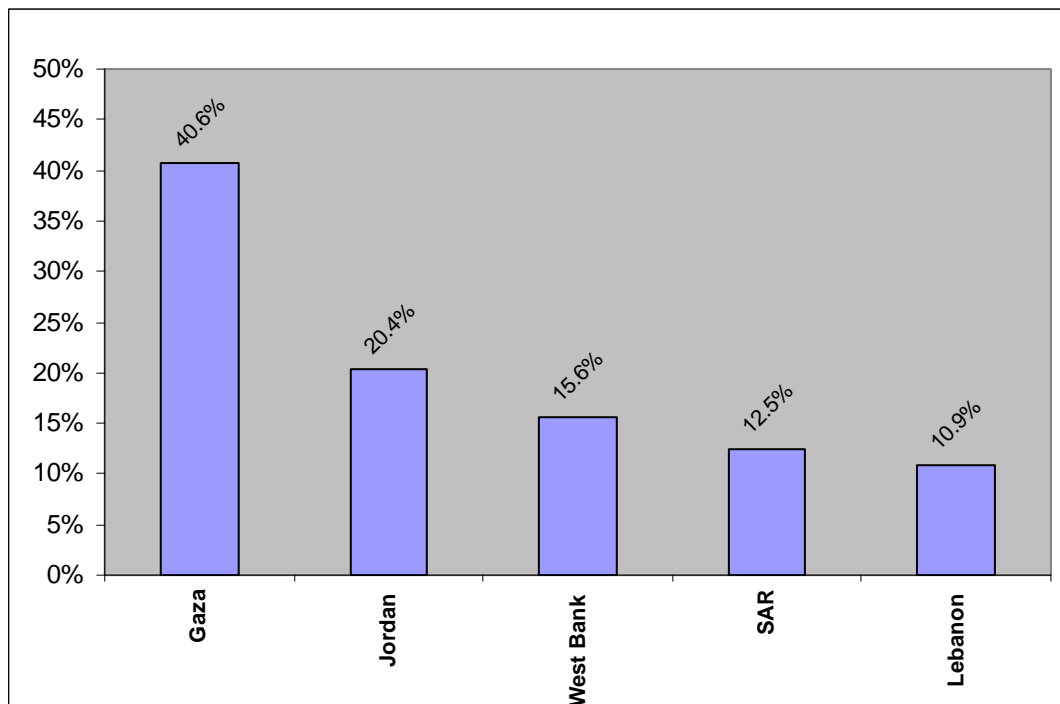
(Source: Conceptualized by researcher, based on UNRWA staffing table, December, 2008)

5.1.2 Department

Table 5.2 Distribution of Respondents by Department.

Department	Count	Percent
Education	137	23.3%
Admin. Support Services	95	16.1%
Human Resources	76	12.9%
Relief and Social Services	71	12.1%
Engineering	66	11.2%
Finance	53	9.0%
Health	52	8.8%
Director Offices	29	4.9%
Audit	4	0.7%
External Relations	4	0.7%
Commissioner-General Office	2	0.3%
Total	**589**	**100**

Examining table (5.2) shows that the sample was distributed rationally with the original size of staff among UNRWA Departments. Education Department got the highest percentage, where it is rightly represented on ground, quoting 23.3% of the whole sample, followed by Administrative Support Services Department, 16.1%, Human Resources, 12.9%, Relief & Social Services, 12.1%, and Engineering Department, with 11.2%. The distribution of staff among Departments was rational and tallies the overall distribution, as shown in figure (5.2).

Figure 5.2 Distribution of Study Society by Department
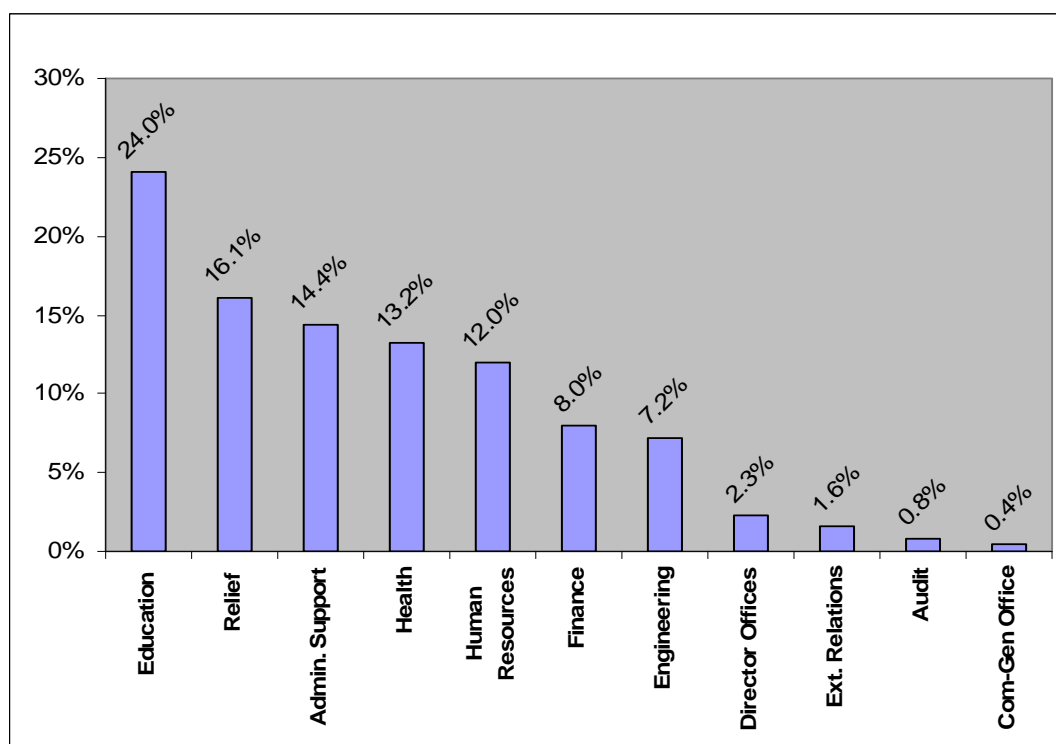
(Source: Conceptualized by researcher, based on UNRWA staffing table, December, 2008)

5.1.3 Gender

One respondent hadn't filled this paragraph, which could be referred to an oversight, represents 0.17% of the total sample, and thus considered insignificant to affect the reliability of the study.

Table 5.3 Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Gender	Count	Percent
Male	349	59.4
Female	239	40.6
Total	**588**	**100.0**

Table (5.3) shows that about 60% of the respondents were male, while about 40% were female. It worth noting that the distribution of percentage between male and female, corresponds to the overall percentages of male and female working power in UNRWA, which arrived, at the end of 2008 year, to about 55% male and 45% female ([1]). Figure (5.3) provide visual representation of gender working power in UNRWA.

Figure 5.3 UNRWA Staffing by Gender
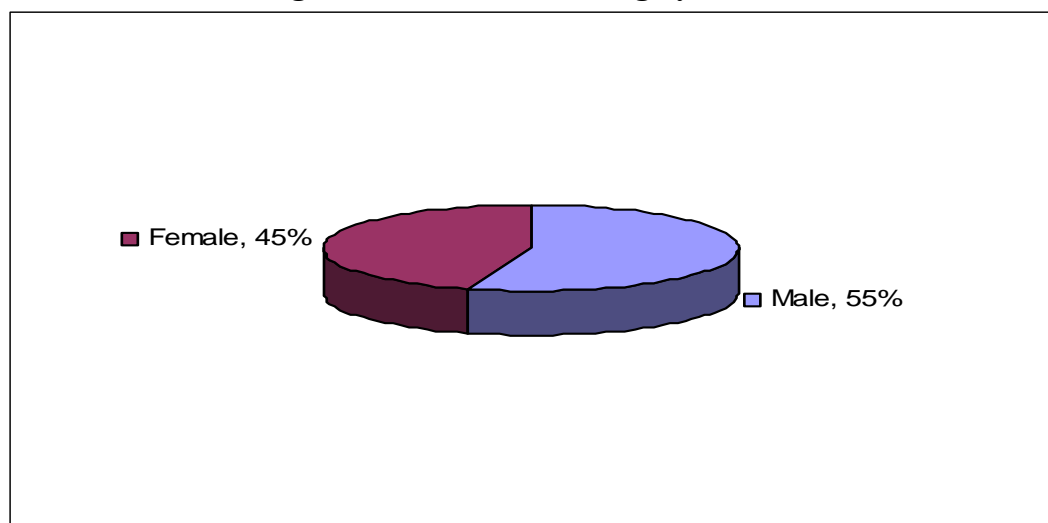
(Source: Generated by researcher, based on UNRWA staffing table, December, 2008)

This percentage was close with (Abu-Samra & Ghneim, 2007), where 62% were male & 38% female. In (Abu-Nada, 2007) study, the percentages were different: 69% male and 31% female; and this could be referred to the different work environment where the latter study conducted, with differed recruitment and policy applied.

5.1.4 Age

Three responses were missing on this character, most probably due the sensitivity of age for female staff or simply an oversight. This stands for 0.5% of the sample, thus could not affect the reliability of the overall results.

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[1] . UNRWA staffing table at December 2008.

Table 5.4 Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age	Count	Percent
From 20 to less than 30 years	110	18.8
From 30 to Less than 40 years	197	33.6
From 40 to less than 50 years	195	33.3
50 years and above	84	14.3
Total	**586**	**100.0**

Reviewing (table 5.4) shows that most of the sample age, 67%, was lying between "30 to less than 50" years old categories. This fact could be referred to the sample design where it included only posts higher than grade 05, where the minimum requirements for employment are a university degree plus additional varied number of years of experience.

The age category of "20-less than 30 years", qualifies for 18.8% of the total sample, which indicates that fifth of UNRWA working power was fresh staff. The oldest category "50 and above", constitutes about 15%, which implies that UNRWA have a good portion of "experienced" staff. Ultimately, we can conclude that the majority of the working power of UNRWA local staff sits under what is called "mature" staff.

This high percentage of middle-aged staff goes with (Al-Fahdawi & Al-Qatawnah, 2004), where groups of age (26-35 and 36-45) counts for 78% of the sample; while in (Abu-Nada, 2007) study the majority of the sample was from age "20-30" years old group, 48% of the total sample, and this could be referred to the different employment mechanism, where UNRWA emphasizes on experience.

5.1.5 Marital Status

Two respondents had not filled the question about their marital status that represents about 0.3% of the sample, which seems too diminutive to affect the reliability of the study results.

Table 5.5 Distribution of Respondents by Marital Status

Marital Status	Count	Percent
Married	466	79.4
Single	105	17.9
Widow	6	1.0
Divorced	10	1.7
Total	**587**	**100.0**

Reviewing table (5.5) reveals that about 80% of the sample were "married", followed by "single" with about 18%; while "widow" and "divorced" categories were too small,

with 1% & 1.7% respectively. This indicates a relative stability of UNRWA staff community; most of staff, with their salaries, were able to establish and raise families.

The distribution of marital status coincides with (Abu-Nada, 2007), where married and single percentage were 78% and 19% respectively; with (Al-Ahmadi, 2004), where married and single percentage were 77% and 22% respectively.

5.1.6 Family Size

There were five missing answers on the question related to the family size. The researcher thinks in some rare cases, respondents were a bit confused. One of respondents approached the researcher asking "I have no children, where can I put my choice of the family size?". It is assumed that this might happened with other three or four cases. The researcher believes that he could have added a phrase ("including spouse and children, if any") so as make it clearer. Nevertheless, the five missing responses represent 0.85% of the sample and considered insignificant to affect the reliability of the study.

Table 5.6 Distribution of Respondent by Family Size

Family Size	Count	Percent
1-3 members	148	25.3
4-5 members	216	37.0
6-7 members	132	22.6
8 members and above	88	15.1
Total	**584**	**100.0**

Reviewing tables (5.6) indicates that most of the UNRWA staff, about 37%, are raising a moderate family of 4-5 members, while about a quarter of them having a small family of 1-3 members. This complement with para 5.1.5, above, where 80% of UNRWA staff were married. The family size percentages were too close with (Abu-Nada, 2007) study, where family size "1-3 members" counted 33.6%; "4-5 members", 28.5%; "6-7 members", 18%; and "8 and above", 20%.

5.1.7 Academic Qualification

There were three missing answers, which stand for 0.34% of the total sample and considered too tiny to affect the reliability of the study.

Table 5.7 Distribution of Respondent by Academic Qualification

Academic Qualification	Count	Percent
High School	6	1.0
Diploma	111	18.8
BA	277	47.1
Post Graduate	192	32.6
Total	**586**	**100.0**

Reviewing table (5.7) reveals that almost half of the sample was holding a Bachelor Degree (BA), and about a third of them had post graduate degrees. While the researcher considerers the size of BA holders synchronizes the selection of sample ([1]), he found it strange and interesting, that 32.6% had Post Graduate degree. Paragraph 5.1.10 under, shows that only 8.9% of the sample staff are at grade 17-20 category where such posts would require post graduate degrees.

This imbalanced academic qualifications, denotes high calibre staff who work to develop themselves continuously, regardless the post's grade they occupy; however, imposes higher expectation from UNRWA, on the other side.

The distribution of academic qualification concurs with (Abu-Nada, 2007), where diploma holders represented 18.7% and BA 45.2%, while diverts for high school, where the latter study found 24.2% and post graduate, 11.8%. It's high percentage of BA holders, partially matches with (El-khatib, 2004), where BA holders constitutes 67.7%, while it has different percentages for other qualification categories.

5.1.8 Experience with UNRWA

Only one respondent had not filled this paragraph, which count for 0.16% of the sample and considered diminutive to affect the reliability of the study.

Table 5.8 Distribution of Respondent by Experience with UNRWA

Experience with UNRWA	Count	Percent
Less than 5 years	277	28.1
From 5 to less than 10 years	126	22.4
From 10 years to less than 15	154	32.2
15 years and above	31	17.3
Total	**588**	**100.0**

Examining tables (5.8) reveals that almost half of the sample was employed less than ten years, while a third of it was employed between ten to fifteen years. These results suggest that UNRWA staff show a bit high turn over percentage

This distribution of staff upon their experience goes partially with (Abu-Nada, 2007).

5.1.9 Job Grade

There were two missing answers, which represent 0.3% of the subject sample and considered too tiny to affect the reliability of the study.

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[1] . In 2005, UNRWA commenced an approach to heighten the post requirement towards BA, instead of Diploma, especially for technical posts from grade 12 and above (UNRWA post classification manual).

Table 5.9 Distribution of Respondent by Grade

Job Grade	Count	Percent
Grades 05-08	169	28.8
Grades 09-12	233	39.7
Grades 13-16	133	22.7
Grades 17-20	52	8.9
Total	**587**	**100.0**

Studying table (5.9) explains that the largest bunch, 40%, was for technical posts "grade 09-12", while the smallest group was for managerial posts, less than 9%. The clerical/ secretarial support "grades 05-08" and professional "grades 13-16" groups constituted about 28.8% and 22.7%, respectively. This goes in line with the over all distribution of posts in the agency, which supported the notion that the sample was representative to the population of the study. Figure (5.4) shows the overall percentage of staff in UNRWA, grouped in grade categories similar to those of this study.

Figure 5.4 Overall Grading of UNRWA staff
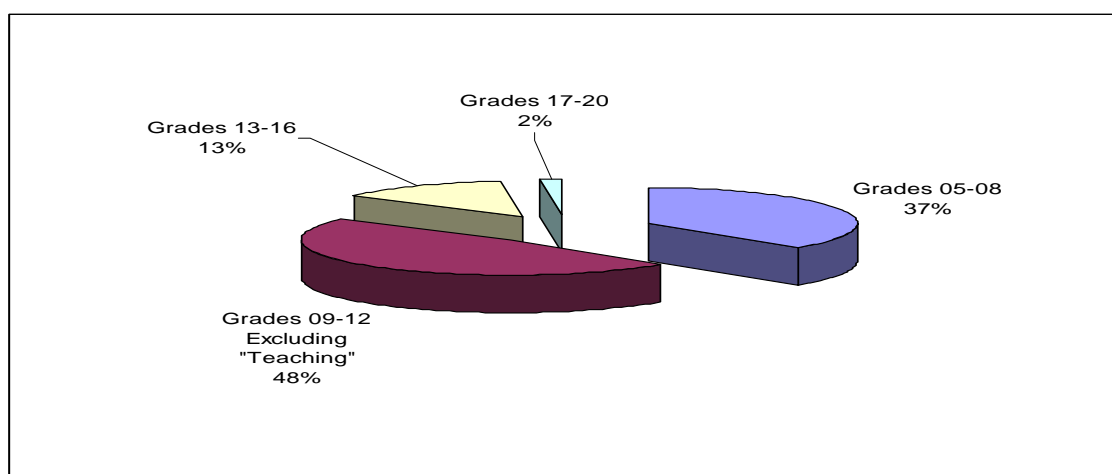
(Source: Developed by researcher, based on data from staffing table, as of December 2008)

UNRWA has a special and very unique grading system that differs from other employers, up the researcher knowledge, in the Middle East. Thus it was difficult to correlate this distribution of post grading with other studies. However, relatively, the distribution here could be related to (Al-Fahdawi & Al-Qatawnah, 2004), where the great category size was for non-senior staff 64%, while senior managers or assistants rated at about 8%.

5.1.10 Training Courses in the current job
Only two respondents had not filled out this question, which stand for only 0.3% of the subject sample and considered too small to affect the reliability of the study.

Table 5.10 Distribution of Respondent by Training Courses

Training courses	Count	Percent
No courses	111	18.9
1-3 courses	199	33.9
4-6 courses	110	18.7
7 courses and more	167	28.4
Total	**587**	**100.0**

Analysing table (5.10) reveals that less than 79% of the sample had got at least one training course during their employment with UNRWA If we consider that some respondents might get other training course(s) during previous jobs – assuming they moved during their employment with UNRWA – we can quiet see that UNRWA is giving a considerable attention to staff training. This distribution of training courses coincides with (Abu-Nada, 2007), where the percentage, in latter study was 16% for no courses, 41.7% for 1-3 courses, 15.9% for 4-6 courses and 26.4% for 7 courses and above.

Summary of the Deceptive Analysis

1. The sample was distributed rationally compared with the study population. This can be concluded as:

    a. The distribution among UNRWA Fields, which matches the original society;

    b. The rational distribution of the sample among the agency's Departments.

    c. The gender distribution tallies the overall balance of working power in the agency, which stands at 60% male and 40% female.

    d. The distribution of the sample' post grade was matching the overall grading pattern in the Agency.

2.   67% of the sample was "mature" staff, aged 30 to 50 years; and a about half of it had less than ten years experience with UNRWA.

3. Most of the sample held an BA (47%); and about 80% of the sample members got at least one training course during their current job.

Section Two: Statistical Analysis of the study Variables

This section is designed to verify the nature and mean of leadership style, organizational commitment, and to identify analyse the relationship between the study variables, and analyse their trend and strength, in light of the previous studies.

5.2.1 Leadership Style

To answer the study's first question "**What is the dominant leadership style of the UNRWA's Field/ Department supervisors, as perceived by their subordinates?**", leadership style is studied and analyzed in the view of the full-range leadership theory, where leader's behaviour was assessed using nine styles grouped into three main categories: transformational, five facts, transactional, three factors, and laissez-faire.

5.2.1.1 Transformational Leadership Style

Transformational leadership is the development of a relationship of mutual needs, aspirations, and values in which the leader looks for potential motives. Followers and leaders unite to achieve a common goal, beyond expectations, which places emphasis on institutional goals and not personal agendas.

5.2.1.1.1 Idealized Influence (Behaviour)

This refers to leaders' behaviour that reveal the leader's values and beliefs, ethical and moral values, and vision. Four paragraphs were formulated to evaluate this construct; table (5.11) shows the results.

Table 5.11 Idealized Influence (Behaviour)

No.	Item	Mean	T-value	P-value
1.	Talks about their most important values and believes.	5.70	-2.64	0.004*
2.	Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	6.08	0.73	0.232
3.	Considers the moral and ethical consequences of his / her decisions.	5.95	-0.47	0.320
4.	Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission and supports team spirit.	6.06	0.56	0.289
	Total	**5.95**	**-0.67**	**0.252**

* The mean is significantly different from 6

Analysing table (5.11) reveals that the only statistically significant, at level $\alpha = 0.05$, response was item # 1, "Supervisor talks about their most important values and believes", where its mean was 5.7. The rest of items, #2, #3 and #4, were statistically non-significant. The overall mean of idealized influence (behaviour) equals 5.95, and

non-significant, at $\alpha = 0.05$ level. This indicates that the UNRWA staff could not conceptualize a clear idea on idealized influence (behaviour) and it was not dominant style. This result suggests that UNRWA staff didn't perceive their supervisors as considering the moral and ethical consequences of their decisions, talking about their most important values and believes, and emphasizing the importance of having collective sense of mission and support team spirit. This results is supported by the fact the overall mean of IIB was insignificant and smaller than 60%.

The average mean of this study goes close with (Emery & Baker, 2007; Stumpf, 2003; and Brown, 2003), while below (Nemanich & Keller, 2007; and Moore & Rudd, 2006), which could be attributed to the selection of the latter studies' samples, which were selected from employees of a large, multinational firm or state Extension directors, respectively.

5.2.1.1.2 Idealized Influence (Attributed)

In this leadership style the emotional aspect of leaders is credited with shifting follower self-interest to a global perspective that places the welfare of the organization first. Four paragraphs were articulated to evaluate this construct; table (5.12) shows the results.

Table 5.12 Idealized Influence (Attribute)

No.	Item	Mean	T-value	P-value
1.	Instils pride in staff for being associated with him/her	5.50	-4.20	0.000*
2.	Sacrifices his/her self-interest for the good of the group.	4.38	-13.20	0.000*
3.	Have leadership skills that build my respect.	5.89	-0.97	0.166
4.	Displays sense of power and confidence.	7.05	10.33	0.000*
	Total	**5.70**	**-3.21**	**0.001***

* The mean is significantly different from 6

Reviewing table (5.12) exposes that the respondent answers to the question, #3, "Have leadership skills that build my respect", was non-significant at level $\alpha = 0.05$. Respondents might been not aware of the "leadership skills" that leaders should acquire, so as could not judged this item properly; they might have conflict with their supervisor; or simply hadn't notice such leadership skills. The rest of paragraphs were significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ level. Consequently, the overall mean of idealized influence (attributed) equals 5.70 and significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ level. Then the sample could conceptualize their views on this construct, though they had not find their supervisors infusing pride in them, sacrificing their self-interest for the group interest, having leadership skills or displaying

sense of power and confidence, to a satisfying degree (less than 60%). Therefore, idealized influence (attributed) leadership style was not dominant.

This result agrees with (Emery & Baker, 2007; Stumpf, 2003; and Brown, 2003); while below (Nemanich & Keller, 2007; and Moore & Rudd, 2006), which could be attributed to the different sample and environment of the latter two studies.

5.2.1.1.3 Inspirational Motivation

This style of leadership encourages followers to excel, through motivating, raising expectations and communicating confidence in followers, who enthusiastically achieve ambitious goals. Four paragraphs were designed to evaluate this construct; table (5.13) shows the results.

Table 5.13 Inspirational Motivation

No.	Item	Mean	T-value	P-value
1.	Talks optimistically about the future.	6.18	1.71	0.044*
2.	Talks enthusiastically when setting goals and objectives to be accomplished.	6.09	0.81	0.209
3.	Articulates a compelling vision of the future.	6.00	-0.03	0.487
4.	Shows confidence that goals will be achieved.	6.98	10.17	0.000*
	Total	**6.31**	**3.56**	**0.000***

* The mean is significantly different from 6.

Examining table (5.13) shows that the mean of paragraphs was split: half of them, item#2 and #3 were insignificant, while items #1 and # 4 were significant, at $\alpha = 0.05$ level. However, the overall mean of inspirational motivation equals 6.31, and significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ level, which indicates that sample could conceptualize their views on this leadership style and perceiving their supervisors exercising it 63.1%, generally. However, looking deep into table (5.13), suggests that the sample perceived their supervisors as talking optimistically about the future and shows confidence that the set goals will be achieved, while they could not see their supervisors as talking enthusiastically when setting goals and objectives to be accomplished or articulating a compelling vision of the future.

The great positive contribution to the total of "inspirational motivation" resulted from item # 4, which could be attributed to financial powerful status of UNRWA, where it considered a good vehicle to achieve goals. On the other hand, the most negative effect came from item # 3, which implies either unawareness of the substance of defining a "vision" or lacking the competence to articulate a flourishing one by UNRWA supervisors.

The average mean reached in this study, tallies with (Stumpf, 2003; and Brown, 2003), while below (Nemanich & Keller, 2007; and Moore & Rudd, 2006), which could be referred to different sample and environment of the latter studies.

5.2.1.1.4   Intellectual Stimulation

This style of leadership encourages followers to question assumptions, invites creative solutions to problems, and challenges the status quo in order to gain new perspectives. Four paragraphs were developed to assess this construct; table (5.14) shows the results.

Table 5.14 Intellectual Stimulation

No.	Item	Mean	T-value	P-value
1.	Re-examine critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate.	5.65	-3.36	0.000*
2.	Seeks different perspectives when solving problems.	5.83	-1.49	0.069
3.	Gets staff to look at problems from different angles.	5.40	-5.21	0.000*
4.	Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	5.48	-4.69	0.000*
	Total	**5.59**	**-4.20**	**0.000***

* The mean is significantly different from 6

Reviewing table (5.14) reveals that the respondent answers to the item #2 "Seeks different perspectives when solving problems", was non-significant, at $\alpha = 0.05$ level. This connotes that the respondents could not conceptualize a clear view on this paragraph. This could be construed to the fact that most (90%) of the sample was lying below grade 16 posts, where the attached functions governed by technical instructions and standardized work procedures.

The responses to the rest of the items, #1, 3 & 4, were significant, which contributed to the significance of total mean of intellectual stimulation, at $\alpha = 0.05$ level. Therefore, the sample could conceptualize their views on intellectual stimulation style, though it was not dominant (55.9%). This implies that the sample could not perceive their supervisors as re-examining critical assumption to questions whether they were appropriate, seeking different perspectives when solving problems, getting staff to look at problems from different angles, suggesting new ways at how to complete assignments, and encouraging creativity and innovative thinking and reframe problems in order to gain new perspectives.

The mean reached in this study agrees with (Emery & Baker, 2007; Stumpf, 2003; and Brown, 2003), while below (Moore & Rudd, 2006), where the sample and environment were diverged, in the latter two studies.

5.2.1.1.5   Individual Consideration

This construct refers to leaders who act as mentors and pay attention to individual needs for growth and achievement, encourage them strive for higher levels of attainment by pursuing challenges. This leader listens, delegates tasks as a means of developing followers, and offers direction or support as needed. Four paragraphs were built up to measure this factor; table (5.15) shows the results.

Table 5.15 Individual Consideration

No.	Item	Mean	T-value	P-value
1.	Spends time teaching and coaching staff.	4.71	-11.39	0.000*
2.	Treats me as an individual rather that just as a member of a group.	7.03	8.98	0.000*
3.	Consider staff's individual special needs, abilities, and aspirations.	5.05	-8.71	0.000*
4.	Helps staff to improve and develop their abilities and skills.	5.73	-2.44	0.008*
	Total	**5.63**	**-3.92**	**0.000***

* The mean is significantly different from 6

Checking table (5.15) indicates that the mean of all items were significant, at $\alpha = 0.05$ level; which consequently brought the overall mean of individual consideration to be significant. Then the respondents could conceptualize their views on this leadership style. Since the mean equals 5.63, therefore, the respondents had not agreed that individual consideration style was not dominant of their supervisors' behaviours. This suggests that UNRWA supervisors were not perceived as mentors who pay attention to their individual needs for growth and achievement, spending time teaching and coaching staff, treating them as individuals rather than just a number of a group, and as encouraging them to strive for higher levels of attainment by pursuing challenges.

This result agrees with (Emery & Baker, 2007; Stumpf, 2003; and Brown, 2003); while below (Nemanich & Keller, 2007; and Moore & Rudd, 2006), where the sample and environment of the latter two studies were divergent.

5.2.1.1.6 Overall Transformational Leadership Style

Examining table (5.16) reveals that the overall mean of transformational leadership style was used by UNRWA supervisors, infrequently; less than 60%.

Table 5.16 Overall Transformational Leadership Style

No.	Item	Mean	T-value	P-value
1.	Idealized Influence – Behaviour	5.95	-0.67	0.252
2.	Idealized Influence – Attributed	5.70	-3.21	0.001*
3.	Inspirational Motivation	6.31	3.56	0.000*
4.	Intellectual Stimulation	5.59	-4.20	0.000*
5.	Individual Consideration	5.63	-3.92	0.000*
	Total	**5.84**	**-1.94**	**0.027***

* The mean is significantly different from 6

Supervisors were not, as perceived by their subordinates, articulating a clear and appealing vision of what the organisation could accomplish or become to help guide the actions and decisions of members, explaining how the vision can be attained, acting confident and optimistic, expressing confidence in followers and their ability to carry out the strategy for accomplishing the vision, providing opportunities for early success and increase the confidence of an individual or team undertaking a challenging task, celebrating successes and maintain an awareness of continuing progress, and recognize the contribution and accomplishment of individuals, leading by example, or empowering people to achieve the vision by delegating to individuals. However, UNRWA supervisors were moderately, 63%, perceived as talking optimistically about the future and showing confidence that goals will be achieved. In conclusion, transformational leadership style was not dominant in UNRWA supervisor's behaviour, as perceived by their subordinates.

5.2.1.2 Transactional Leadership Style

The second component of full-range leadership theory is transactional leadership that involves either positive or negative exchange, depending on the follower's performance (Bass & Avolio, 1994). The transactional leadership style is analysed at three levels: contingent reward (CR), management-by-exception (active) (MbEA) and management-by-exception (passive) (MbEP).

5.2.1.2.1 Contingent Reward

Leaders clarify roles of followers and the rewards that will be issued for desired outcomes. This style is effective, but to a lesser degree than transformational leadership. Four paragraphs were designed to evaluate this factor. Looking at table (5.17), exposes that the means of all contingent reward items were significant, which led to the overall mean of this leadership style to be significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ level.

Table 5.17 Contingent Reward

No.	Item	Mean	T-value	P-value
1.	Provides staff with assistance in exchange of their efforts.	5.76	-2.28	0.011*
2.	Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.	5.44	-5.20	0.000*
3.	Makes clear what staff can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.	5.01	-9.68	0.000*
4.	Expresses satisfaction when staff meets expectations.	6.57	5.33	0.000*
	Total	**5.69**	**-3.44**	**0.000***

* The mean is significantly different from 6.

This result implies that the respondents could conceptualize their views on this construct. Respondents, though, perceive their supervisors as expressing satisfaction when staff meets expectations, moderately; slightly higher than 60%, item #4, the overall mean of contingent reward was below 60%, which indicates that it was not dominant. This result suggests that respondents could not perceive their supervisors as providing staff with assistance in exchange of their efforts, explaining the responsibility of achieving performance targets, and making a clear rewarding scheme, though expressing satisfaction when staff meet expectations.

This result agrees with (Walumbwa, et al., 2008; Stumpf, 2003; Brown, 2003), while higher than (Emery & Baker, 2007), in which complies with the fact that the latter study showed higher transformational style of its sample responses.

5.2.1.2.2 Management-by-Exception (Active)
This leadership style is a corrective is transaction and occurs when the follower deviates from the norm. Leaders are active vigilance whose goal is to ensure that standards are met. Four paragraphs were developed to evaluate this factor.

Table 5.18 Management-by-Exception (Active)

No.	Item	Mean	T-value	P-value
1.	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.	6.83	8.65	0.000*
2.	Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures.	6.28	2.55	0.005*
3.	Keeps track of staff's mistakes.	5.04	-7.93	0.000*
4.	Directs staff attention toward failures to meet standards.	6.04	0.40	0.346
	Total	**6.05**	**0.80**	**0.212**

* The mean is significantly different from 6

Reviewing table (5.18) reveals that the mean of respondent answers to item #4 "Directs staff attention toward failures to meet standards", was 6.04, however, insignificant at $\alpha = 0.05$ level. The respondents' answers to item #3 "Keeps track of staff's mistakes" fall below the hypothesized value, 6, with a large gap (T-value = -7.93), which indicates that the respondents see their supervisors as keeping track of staff mistakes 50%. The researcher thinks that supervisors don't keep such track, frequently, neither for mistakes nor for achievements, which will affect the performance evaluation, eventually.

The overall mean of management-by-exception equals 6.05, however, was insignificant at $\alpha = 0.05$. Therefore, the sample could neither conceptualize their view on this type of leadership style, nor perceived their supervisors, as directing their attention toward failures to meet standards. Supervisors were perceived as focusing on irregularities and mistakes, concentrating on dealing with complaints and failure. Therefore, management-by-exception (active) was not dominant style.

The average mean reached in this study comes higher than (Emery & Baker, 2007; Moore & Rudd, 2006; Stumpf, 2003; Brown, 2003; and Lawrence, 2000).

5.2.1.2.3 Management-by-Exception (Passive)

This leadership style is similar to management-by-exception (active); however, passive leaders do not actively monitor performance, but instead wait until deviations occur and then implement a corrective action. Four paragraphs were formulated to assess this style; table (5.19) shows the results.

Table 5.19 Management-by-Exception (Passive)

No.	Item	Mean	T-value	P-value
1.	Fails to interfere until problems become serious.	5.35	-6.00	0.000*
2.	Waits for things to go wrong before taking action.	4.89	-9.19	0.000*
3.	Shows that s/he is a firm believer in "if it not broke, don't fix it".	5.23	-6.52	0.000*
4.	Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action.	4.42	-14.40	0.000*
	Total	**4.98**	**-12.14**	**0.000***

* The mean is significantly different from 6

Reviewing table (5.19) reveals that the means of all items were significant, at $\alpha = 0.05$ level; consequently the overall management-by-exception (passive) mean was significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ level. This indicates that the sample could conceptualize their views on this construct. However, the mean value was smaller than the hypothesized value 6, considerably. With its T-value = -12.14, the mean was equal to 4.98; this

expected as its all item's mean were below 6. This result suggests that the respondents could not perceive their supervisor failing to interfere until problems become serious, waits for things to go wrong before taking action, believe in "if it is not broke, don't fix it", or demonstrating that problems must become chronic before taking action.

This result actually complements, and strengthen, the outcome of management-by-exception (active), paragraph 5.2.1.2.2 above, where the study found that the perception of supervisors was that they focusing attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards and take corrective action immediately. This could be construed to the UNRWA system, where it considers supervisor accountable, even for their subordinates' mistakes.

The average mean reached in this study comes higher than (Emery & Baker, 2007; Stumpf, 2003; and Brown, 2003).

5.2.1.2.4 Overall Transactional Leadership Style

Table 5.20 Overall Transactional Leadership Style

No.	Transactional Leadership Style	Mean	T-value	P-value
1.	Contingent Reward	5.69	-3.44	0.000*
2.	Management-by-Exception (Active)	6.05	0.80	0.212
3.	Management-by-Exception (Passive)	4.98	-12.14	0.000*
	Total	**5.58**	**-8.74**	**0.000***

* The mean is significantly different from 6

Examining table (5.20) reveals that the overall mean of transactional leadership style used by UNRWA supervisors equals 5.58, and significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ level. This result complemented those arrived for transactional leadership subscales: contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), and management-by-exception (passive). Therefore, transactional leadership style was not dominant behaviour of UNRWA supervisors, as perceived by their subordinates. This could be referred to the nature of UNRWA as being compelled with rules and regulations, where supervisors concentrate more on monitoring staff performance to achieve results and take corrective action when mistake occurs. However, corrective action on failures or mistakes can't be delayed; supervisors are held responsible, ultimately.

5.2.1.3 Laissez-Faire

The third level of the full-range leadership is the laissez-faire leadership style which connotes that leaders are inactive and passive, as opposed to proactive. Actually this style represents the absence of leadership. Four items were articulated to evaluate this factor; table (5.21) shows the results.

Table 5.21 Laissez-Faire Leadership Style

No.	Item	Mean	T-value	P-value
1.	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise.	4.44	-13.56	0.000*
2.	Is absent when needed.	4.26	-14.67	0.000*
3.	Avoids making decisions	4.63	-11.73	0.000*
4.	Delays responding to urgent questions.	5.11	-7.89	0.000*
	Total	**4.61**	**-15.69**	**0.000***

* The mean is significantly different from 6

Assessing table (5.21) shows that the means for all items measuring laissez-faire leadership style were significant; consequently the overall mean of this style was significant, $\alpha = 0.05$ level. However, the mean value was smaller than the hypothesized value 6, considerably. With its T-value = -15.69, the mean of laissez-faire leadership style was equal to 4.61; this result was expected as its all item's mean were below 6 and significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ level.

This result suggests that the respondents perceived their supervisor, rarely (46.1%), avoiding get involved when important issues arise, being absent when needed, evading making decisions or delaying responding to urgent questions. This result augments those of management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception(passive), paragraphs 5.2.1.2.2 & 5.2.1.2.3 above. It sounds logical product since each post in UNRWA has its own duties, responsibilities and accountability. Incumbents of such posts can't be absent when needed or avoiding getting involved in decision and important issues concerning their functional responsibility. Supervisors should be held accountable for consequences whether finical losses, disturbing work flow, wasting time and/or affecting negatively the image of UNRWA and its relation with local and international communities.

This result goes with (El-Khatib, 2004), while higher than (Moore & Rudd, 2006; Stumpf, 2003; Brown, 2003; Lawrence, 2000), most probably for different sample and environment.

5.2.1.4 Overall Leadership Styles

Figure (5.5) provide visual illustration of the nine factors of full range leadership theory, together with an overall view of the perceived leadership style.

Figure 5.5 UNRWA Supervisor's Dominant Leadership Style, as Perceived by their Subordinates
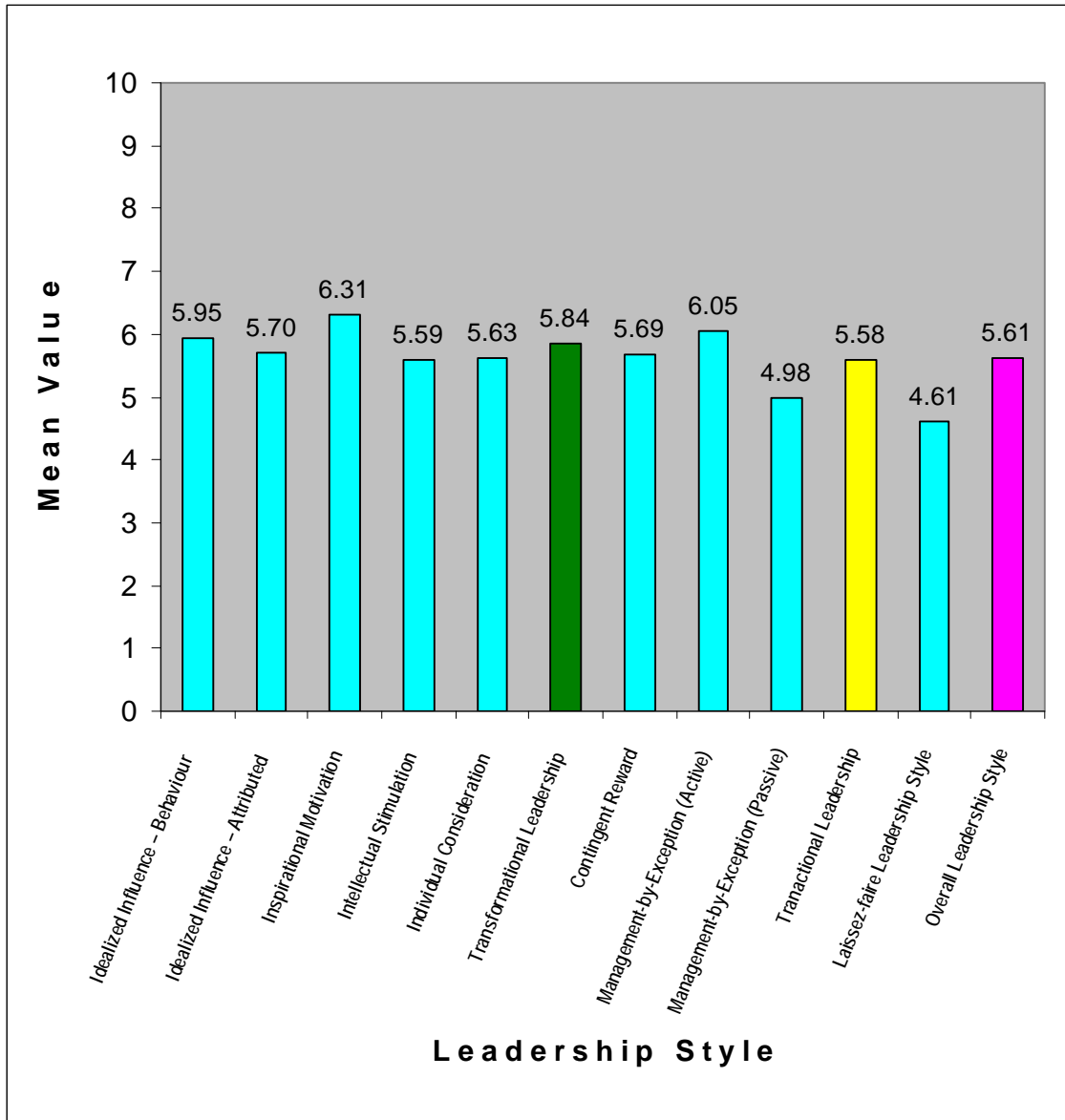
(Source: Conceptualized by researcher, based on collected data)

Analysing figure (5.5), the research concluded that UNRWA staff perceived their supervisors as having no strong dominant leadership style, in view of the full-range leadership theory, neither transformational nor transactional. The overall mean of both styles was less than the hypothesized value 6: transformational leadership style was exercised 58.4% and transactional leadership style 55.8%, as perceived by their subordinates.

Within transformational leadership style subscales, inspirational motivation was relatively the most dominant subscale, though with a small margin above the hypothesized value, (63.1%). In transactional leadership subscales, management-by-exception (active), was rated the highest mean, though insignificant and with a tiny span above the hypothesized value, (60.5%).

It is quite interesting that Laissez-faire Leadership style mean was weaker than the two leadership styles: Transformational, Transactional. However, the researcher, considering its negative signals that it conveys to subordinates, believes that UNRWA's supervisors should practice this leadership style at a lower level. This conclusion was enhanced by the fact that its mean, 4.61, fall higher than many other studies (Moore & Rudd, 2006; Stumpf, 2003; Brown, 2003; Lawrence, 2000).

The overall leadership style (concluding transformational, transactional and laissez-faire), was below the hypothesized value, sits at 56.1%. To analyse and refine this result, the researcher had performed the frequency and percentile for the second time excluding laissez-faire (considering its negative effect). The results, table 5.22, shows that overall leadership style continue to be below the hypothesized value, with small shit, 57.4%.

Table 5.22 Overall Leadership Style

Leadership Style	Mean	T-value	P-value(Sig.)
Transformational Leadership Style	5.84	-1.94	0.027*
Transactional Leadership Style	5.58	-8.74	0.000*
Overall Leadership Style (without Laissez-faire)	**5.74**	**-3.9**	**0.000***

* The mean is significantly different from 6

This implies that, UNRWA staff could not see their supervisors as "LEADERS" having charisma, inspiring, motivating, and stimulating towards achieving a challenging goal, but, up to the researcher judgment, as "MANAGERS", who perform duties and responsibilities in the right manner, with the help of subordinates, giving reward for good performance and punishment for bad one, rather.

5.2.2 Organizational Commitment

To answer the study's second question "**What is the level and type of the organizational commitment of UNRWA staff members**?, the researcher examined the level of the organizational commitment in a multi-dimensional concept, as proposed by Meyer and Allen (1997). This enabled the researcher to analyse organizational commitment, deeply to get a better position identifying the strengths and weaknesses, so as contribute towards its overall improvement. Thus, organizational commitment was scrutinized through three facets: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.

5.2.2.1 Affective Commitment

Affective commitment is an employee's emotional attachment to, and involvement in, the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment will remain in the organization because they want to. To examine this construct, seven questions were developed, table 5.23 refers. It worth noting that items six and seven were reversed - wording and meaning - when distributed to the sample, to ensure reliability of answers; and now they are reverted back to their original structure.

Table 5.23 Affective Organizational Commitment

No.	Item	Mean	T-value	P-value
1.	I will be happy if I spend the rest of my career with UNRWA.	5.70	-2.44	0.007*
2.	I feel that if UNRWA has a problem, it is my problem as well.	6.35	3.06	0.001*
3.	I feel as if I belong to the "family" in this organization	6.67	5.95	0.000*
4.	I feel emotionally attached to this organization.	6.22	1.95	0.026*
5.	It means a great deal to me, personally, to work with UNRWA.	6.58	5.51	0.000*
6.#	My work with UNRWA gives me a strong sense of belonging.	6.54	4.50	0.000*
7.#	I feel proud when talking with others about my job.	6.99	7.98	0.000*
	Total	**6.44**	**5.22**	**0.000***

* The mean is significantly different from 6

Reviewing table (5.23) reveals that the mean of responses to item #1 was below hypothesized value 6; with its T-value -2.44, the mean equals 5.70, which implies the absence of desire to spend the rest of respondents' career with UNRWA. However, the mean of the rest of all items was significant, $\alpha = 0.05$ and above 6, ranging from 6.22 to 6.99, which consequently brought the overall mean of affective commitment to 6.44 and significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ level.

This result indicates that respondents were able to conceptualize their views on all items related to affective commitment. They showed a moderate level of feeling (64.4%) as they belong to "family" and emotionally attached to UNRWA, it means a great deal for them, personally to work with UNRWA, with a great sense of belonging, and they feel proud when talking with others about their job.

This result could be attributed to the great majority of UNRWA staff are refugees who, themselves, benefit form its services in its three major programmes: Education, Health and Relief and Social Services; and being working there, makes them emotionally attached to UNRWA. Staff are dealing with very vulnerable sector – refugees – so as they would feel the desire to continue working which equally means keep on providing basic services for this deprived people.

However, the researcher believes that the high level of stress was the reason behind having the negative "T=-2.44" response to the item, #1, that asked about the wish to spend the whole career with UNRWA, which affected, slightly, the overall mean of affective commitment, accordingly. This stress could be referred to a) the high demand UNRWA jobs require; b) the relatively instability of UNRWA which linked with Palestinian case; and c) the deterioration of staff savings ([1]) with UNRWA due to the recent international financial crises ([2]).

Affective level commitment in this study goes with (Dale & Fox, 2008; Chang, et al, 2007; Al-Fahdawi & Al-Qatawneh, 2004; Brown, 2003; Cheng, 2003; and Khashaly, 2003).

5.2.2.2 Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment is allied with staff's awareness of the costs associated with leaving UNRWA. Staff whose commitment is in the nature of continuance, will remain in the organization because they have to. To examine this construct, seven questions were developed; table (5.24) shows the results.

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[1] . UNRWA has, instead of social security system, provident fund scheme, where it deduct 7.5% from the staff salary and add 15%, and invest the total in separate portfolio than its financial assets, in international business, subject to revue or loss. On retirement or resignation, staff would get his/her share in that portfolio.

[2] . The recent financial crises (extreme bonds & shares devaluation), affected negatively UNRWA provident fund portfolio. In 2008, UNRWA staff incurred 15% loss, and in the 1st quarter of 2009, the loss was 5%.

Table 5.24 Continuance Organizational Commitment

No.	Item	Mean	T-value	P-value
1.	Even if I wanted to, it would be difficult for me to leave this organization.	5.89	-0.91	0.183
2.	If I decided to leave UNRWA right now, it would be too disruptive to my life.	6.31	2.57	0.005*
3.	It is as much necessity as desire that keeps me working here.	7.33	12.57	0.000*
4.	I feel that if I left, there would be too few job opportunities available to me.	5.42	-4.39	0.000*
5.	The lack of available alternatives would be one of the few negative consequences of leaving UNRWA.	5.32	-5.22	0.000*
6.	The fact that leaving UNRWA would require considerable personal sacrifice is one of the reasons I continue to work here.	4.09	-17.88	0.000*
7.	I continue to work with UNRWA for the many advantages I find compared with other employers.	5.11	-7.36	0.000*
	Total	**5.64**	**-4.52**	**0.000***

* The mean is significantly different from 6

Reviewing table (5.24) shows that the mean of continuance commitment was significant, at level $\alpha = 0.05$ and equals 5.64. It worth noting that all its items were significant, with the exception of question #1 "Even if I wanted to, it would be difficult for me to leave this organization", which was insignificant, at $\alpha = 0.05$ level. The researcher believes that this question was a little bit "multifaceted" so as respondents could not link the two phrases "if I wanted" and "it will be difficult to leave this organization" together. The researcher concludes that should this questionnaire be run again, this item should be re-phrased include the latter part only, "it would be difficult for me to leave this organization".

The most positive effect of responses to continuance commitment came from item #3 "It is as much necessity as desire that keeps me working here", with a high T-value of +12.57, it mean value of was 7.33. This implies that respondents equalized their "need" to "desire" working with UNRWA. On the other hand the main factor contributed negatively to the overall continuance commitment was item #6 "The fact that leaving UNRWA would require considerable personal sacrifice is one of the reasons I continue to work here"; which implies that staff don't expect extreme disruption to their personal life.

The overall mean of continuance commitment was 5.64, and significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ level. This suggests that UNRWA staff could conceptualize their views on continuance commitment, and they believe it would affect their lives, negatively, if decided to leave

UNRWA's job, but this feeling was blow the hypothesized value 6. In other words should UNRWA staff made a comparison between the investment they devoted in their career and the benefits they got with the option to leave UNRWA, they would not find it severe sacrifice.

The researcher thinks this result raises a special concern especially that about 80% of the sample, got at least one training course, during their current job, paragraph 5.1.10, above. Should we consider the fact that UNRWA salaries are higher than those comparable jobs in the host countries ([1]), we could conclude that UNRWA staff are having "something" to loose if decided to leave their jobs. Therefore, the researcher deems the real value of the continuance commitment level can read higher than "5.64". This result could be referred to the reality that this study is run in Palestinian society, where it is difficult to admit the "need" for the "employer" or "job"; people in such culture would perceive admitting such feeling as hurting their dignity.

The level of continuance commitment in this study goes with (Chang, et al, 2007, Khashaly, 2003; and Cheng, 2003), while it lies slightly lower than (Al-Fahdawi & Al-Al-Qatawnah, 2004; and Brown, 2003).

Normative Commitment

The third component, normative commitment, has to do with feeling of obligations to the organization based on staff's personal norms and values. To examine this construct, sex questions were developed; table (5.25) illustrates results. It worth noting that items three and four were reversed – wording and meaning- when distributed to the sample, to ensure reliability of answers; and now they were reverted back to their original structure.

Table 5.25 Normative Organizational Commitment

No.	Item	Mean	T-value	P-Value
1.	I feel obliged to remain working here.	6.90	8.36	0.000*
2.	I don't feel that it would be right for me to leave my workplace now, even if it were to my advantage to do so.	6.66	5.64	0.000*
3.#	If I left my job now, I will feel guilty.	5.14	-6.69	0.000*
4.#	I feel this organization deserves all my commitment.	7.15	9.53	0.000*

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[1] . When deciding its salaries, UNRWA is adopting the principle of "the best prevailing condition in the local market". Thus, when conducting a salary survey, gathering data from the local market, UNRWA administration always keeps a margin above those comparable posts in the local market. (source: UNRWA pay policy).

Table 5.25 Continued

5.	I have a sense of obligation to my colleagues that prevents me from leaving UNRWA.	5.43	-5.18	0.000*
6.	I feel that I owe a great deal to UNRWA	5.19	-7.03	0.000*
	Total	6.08	1.11	0.135

* The mean is significantly different from 6.

Reviewing table (5.25) reveals that the respondents presented mixed answers to the normative commitment. Items number 1, 2 and 4 were higher than hypothesized value 6, while items number 3, 5 and 6 lie below it, though all of them were significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ level.

Item #4 "I feel this organization deserves all my commitment" contributed the most positive effect, with mean value of 7.15; followed by item #1 "I feel obliged to remain working here", with mean value of 6.9; and finally item #2 "I don't feel that it would be right for me to leave my workplace now, even if it were to my advantage to do so", with mean value of 6.66. However, the mean value of item # 3 "If I left my job now, I will feel guilty", contributed the most negative effect, with mean value, 5.14, followed by item #6 "I feel that I owe a great deal to UNRWA", with mean value 5.19 and finally item #5.43 "I have a sense of obligation to my colleagues that prevents me from leaving UNRWA", with mean value of 5.43.

This split answers between positive and negative resulted in non-significance of the overall mean of normative commitment, however, it was slight higher than the hypothesized value 6, with a diminutive value (6.08).

This result indicates that UNRWA staff had a blend feeling of compulsion towards continue working therein. Then, we can conclude they don't have a dominant feeling of obligation to remain with UNRWA that deserves all their commitment, won't feel guilty if decided to leave their job, and even don't hold a sense of obligation towards their colleagues.

The researcher may construe this ambiguity of normal commitment to that UNRWA staff consider UNRWA as a safeguard for their lives, or at least keeping them a life, especially with the all political powers in the middle east, though keeping back in their mind, that UNRWA is a western organ which won't serve their case, fairly.

The level of normative commitment, 60.8%, if exluding the significance factor, goes with (Chang, 2007; Al-Fahdawi & Al-Al-Qatawnah, 2004; Brown, 2003; and Cheng, 2003); while below (Khashaly, 2003), where the latter study conducted in Universities – with highly academic personnel.

5.2.3 Overall Organizational Commitment

To identify the overall organizational commitment, the three types were calculated together, however, this total doesn't supersede the results for each type, but providing an overall indicator, rather.

Table 5.26 Overall Organizational Commitment

Organizational Construct	Mean	T-value	P-value
Affective Commitment	6.44	5.22	0.000*
Continuance Commitment	5.64	-4.52	0.000*
Normative Commitment	6.08	1.11	0.135
Total	**6.05**	**0.87**	**0.193**

Analysing table (5.26) reveals that the most dominant organizational commitment type is affective commitment, which rated 64.4%, followed by normative commitment, however, non-significant, with 60.8% and finally a weaker continuance commitment with 56.4%.

This indicates that UNRWA staff feeling of "desire" was stronger than the feeling of "need" or "obligation" to continue work in the agency. This is an important result since affective commitment has been found to correlate with a wide range of outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism, job performance and organizational citizenship behaviour (Kuvaas, 2006; Ayman, 2003; and Rowden, 2000). However, when taking culture into consideration, affective commitment develops more specifically in relation to work experiences within a particular organization, and stresses personal identity and emotional involvement with the organization. (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).

In general, the study reveals that UNRWA staff had a moderate level of organizational commitment; close to 60%. Neither continuance commitment nor normative commitment was dominant among respondents of UNRWA staff. This goes close with (Abu-Nada, 2007; Emery & Baker, 2007; Al-Fahdawi & Al-Al-Qatawnah, 2004; Al-Ahmadi, 2004; Brown, 2003; Cheng, 2003; and Khashaly, 2003).

This necessitates the need that UNRWA's administration concentrates more efforts to build a trust, empowerment to the staff and participative decision-making, to enhance attachment of staff, and desire to work with UNRWA; additionally, a closer related training courses, improvement to the working conditions, and recognizing personal qualifications that staff acquired through self studying to improve feeling of "need" and "obligation" to continue working with UNRWA; and maintaining open channels of communication to resolve any conflicts or grievances that arose due to organizational norms and individual expectations which changing over time.

Section Three: Hypothesis Verification

Aimed at identifying the relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment, the researcher divided this section into five divisions. The first three divisions studied each leadership style correlation with the three types of organizational commitment; the fourth one verified the correlation between leadership style and organizational commitment, generally; and the fifth one examined the difference, if any, among the respondents' inputs due to their demographic characteristics. Each division is linked to one of the pre-set hypotheses.

5.3.1 The relationship between Transformational Leadership Style and Organizational Commitment.

H1: *There is no significant relationship, at level α=0.05, between the perceived transformational leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their employees' organizational commitment*. This hypothesis creates three sub-hypotheses that link the transformational leadership style with the three dimensions of organizational commitment, **H1.1, H1.2 and H1.3**. Table (5.27) shows the results of these relationships.

Table 5.27 Correlation between Transformational Leadership Style and Organizational Commitment

Leadership Style	Affective		Continuance		Normative		Organizational Commitments	
	R	Sig	R	Sig	R	Sig	R	Sig
Idealized Influence (Behaviour)	.493*	0.000	0.042	0.156	.369*	0.000	.402*	0.000
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	.497*	0.000	-0.049	0.120	.366*	0.000	.360*	0.000
Inspirational Motivation	.445*	0.000	0.039	0.174	.335*	0.000	.364*	0.000
Intellectual Stimulation	.501*	0.000	0.019	0.321	.407*	0.000	.409*	0.000
Individual Consideration	.480*	0.000	0.017	0.341	.391*	0.000	.392*	0.000
Transformational Leadership Style	**.518***	**0.000**	**0.013**	**0.374**	**.401***	**0.000**	**.413***	**0.000**

R. Pearson correlation coefficient

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

H1.1: *There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the transformational leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' affective organizational commitment*.

Reviewing table (5.27) shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient r =0.518 and P-value =0.000, which is smaller than the level of significance, α=0.05, then the null hypothesis **H1.1** is rejected. There is a positive significant relationship between the perceived transformational leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinate's affective organizational commitment. All transformational leadership style subscales (idealized influence –behaviour, idealized influence-attributed, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration) constructs have close correlation values ranging between r= 0.445 and r=0.501; no transformational leadership construct goes over another considerably.

This correlation is similar to (Brown, 2003) study, where all transformational leadership style subscales had positive significant correlations with affective commitment. These correlations were as follows: IIA, r = .45; IM, r = .41; IIB, r = .39; IC, r = .38; and IS, r = .36. Also, (Khashaly, 2003) found a positive significant relationship between the democratic leadership style and affective commitment (r=.44). In (Dale & Fox, 2008) study, there was a positive significant correlations between initiating structure and consideration with affective commitment, r=.20 and r=.48, respectively.

H1.2: *There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the transformational leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' continuance organizational commitment.*

Analysing table (5.27) shows that the correlation coefficient for transformational leadership style and continuance commitment r=.013, at p=0.374, indicates that there is no significant relationship between the transformational leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and continuance organizational commitment of their subordinates, at α=0.05 level, therefore, accept the null hypothesis **H1.2**. This goes with (Brown, 2003) study, where she found no statistically significant correlations among any of the transformational leadership style subscales and continuance commitment. Also, (Khashaly, 2003) found a non-significant relationship between the democratic leadership style and affective commitment (r=.05 and sig. = .41).

H1.3 *There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the transformational leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' normative organizational commitment.*

Evaluating table (5.27) demonstrates that the Pearson correlation coefficient =0.401 and P-value =0.000 which is smaller than the level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$, then there is a

positive significant relationship between the transformational leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and normative organizational commitment for their employees, and thus reject the null hypothesis **H1.3**. Transformational leadership style subscales IIA, IIB and IS contributed the most positive effect to the relation with normative commitment, r=.37, r=.37 and r=.41, respectively.

These results go with (Brown, 2003) study, where she found the transformational subscales had positive, statistically significant correlations with normative commitment. However, these correlations were somewhat lower than affective commitment; their correlation coefficients were IIA, $r = .33$; IIB, $r = .32$; IM, $r = .31$; IS, $r = .31$; and IC, $r = .27$. Also, (Khashaly, 2003) found a positive significant relationship between the democratic leadership style and normative commitment (r=.41).

Transformational Leadership Style correlation with total Organizational Commitment

Reviewing table (5.27) exemplifies that the Pearson correlation coefficient =0.413 and P-valuer (Sig.) =0.000 which is smaller than the level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$, then there is a positive significant relationship between the transformational leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' organizational commitment. Therefore, the null hypothesis **H1** is rejected.

These findings suggest that there is a positive significant relationship between the transformational leadership style and both affective commitment and normative commitment. For affective commitment, this suggests that leadership style which involves building trust, inspiring a shared vision, encouraging creativity, emphasizing development, and recognizing accomplishments is positively related to how employees feel about **wanting to** stay with UNRWA. For normative commitment, findings suggest that the transformational leadership style had also positive, significant correlation with normative commitment, though weaker than affective commitment, related to how employees feel about their obligation to stay with UNRWA.

According to Meyer & Allen (1997), this similar pattern of relationships is expected given that many of the work experiences that influence affective commitment also influence normative commitment. The finding that transformational leadership style have a weaker relationship with normative commitment (r=.401) than with affective commitment (r=0.518) is also appropriate since employees who stay with an organization because they feel **obligated** to, do not exhibit the same enthusiasm and involvement as employees who stay with an organization because they **want** to stay (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

This pattern of correlation goes with (Emery & Baker, 2007), where transformational leadership style had positive significant correlations with organizational commitment. These correlations were: charismatic (IIA & IIB), r=.39; IS, r=.264; IC, r=.386; IM was not included; and with (Huang, et al, 2006), where they found a significant positive correlation between participative leadership style and organizational commitment. Khashaly (2003) had concluded a positive relationship between the democratic leadership style and overall organizational commitment, (r=.39). The result matches, also, with (Wu, et al, 2006), where the correlations between leadership styles and organizational commitment were significant positive. They are, in descending order: selling, r=.533, delegating, r= .508; participating, r=.503 and finally telling with r=093.

5.3.2 The relationship between Transactional Leadership Style and Organizational Commitment.

H2: *There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the perceived transactional leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' organizational commitment.* This hypothesis creates three sub-hypotheses that link the transactional leadership style with the three dimensions of organizational commitment, **H2.1, H2.2 & H2.3.** Table (5.28) shows the results.

Table 5.28 Correlation between Transactional Leadership Style and Organizational Commitment

Transactional Leadership Style	Affective		Continuance		Normative		Organizational Commitments	
	R	Sig	R	Sig	R	Sig	R	Sig
Contingent Reward	.521*	0.000	0.007	0.431	.399*	0.000	.410*	0.000
Management-by-Exception (Active)	.403*	0.000	0.033	0.211	.293*	0.000	.324*	0.000
Management-by-Exception (Passive)	-.233*	0.000	0.095*	0.010	-.245*	0.000	-.162*	0.000
Transactional Leadership Style	**.369***	**0.000**	**0.075***	**0.035**	**.237***	**0.000**	**.307***	**0.000**

R. Pearson correlation coefficient

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

H2.1: *There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the transactional leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' affective organizational commitment.*

Reviewing table (5.28) shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient =0.369 and P-value =0.000 which is smaller than the level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$, then there is a significant positive relationship between the transactional style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' affective organizational commitment; i.e. reject the

null hypothesis **H2.1**. The correlation of transactional leadership subscales was positive for contingent reward and management-by-exception (active), r=.521 & r=.403 respectively, while negative for management-by-exception (passive) (r=-0.233), which in turn affected the total correlation of transactional leadership style with affective commitment.

This result goes partially with (Brown, 2003), where she found positive significant relationship between CR and affective commitment, r=.39, but negative significant relationship with MBEP, r=-.34. There was no statistically significant correlation with MbEA. Ultimately, she moved CR to "relation-oriented" style and concluded that in total, affective commitment had a significant negative correlation with "task-oriented" leadership style. (Khashaly, 2003) arrived at a similar result, where he found a significant negative correlation between autocratic leadership style and affective commitment (r=-.33).

H2.2: *There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the transactional leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' continuance organizational commitment*

Examining table (5.28) reveals that the Pearson correlation coefficient =0.075 and P-value =0.035 which is smaller than the level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$, then there is a positive significant relationship, though very weak, between the transactional leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' continuance commitment; then reject the null hypothesis **H2.2**.

However, two subscales of transactional leadership style, contingent reward and management-by-Exception (active) had non-significant correlations, while management-by-exception (passive) significant but negligible correlation r=.095, with continuance commitment.

(Brown, 2003), found non-significant correlation with MbEP, while significant, but negative, very weak correlations with CR (r=-.08); and significant positive-weak relationship with MbEA, (r=.11). (Khashaly, 2003), also found non-significant relationship between autocratic leadership style and continuance commitment (r=.01 at p=.78).

H2.3: *There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the transactional leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' normative organizational commitment.*

Table (5.28) indicates that the Pearson correlation coefficient =0.237 and P-value =0.000 which is smaller that the level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$, then there is a significant positive relationship between the transactional leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' normative commitment; thus reject the null hypothesis **H2.3**. The correlations of contingent reward and management –by-exception (active) were positive, r=.399 & r=.293, respectively, whereas management-by-exception (passive) was negative, r=-.245, which brought the correlation of total transactional leadership style with normative organizational commitment down to a lower level, r=0.237.

(Brown, 2003) found significant negative correlations between transactional leadership subscales (MBEA & MBEP), but weak relationship, r=-.11 and r=-.27, respectively; while she found a positive significant correlation with CR, r=.39. (Khashaly, 2003), found a negative significant correlation between autocratic leadership style and normative commitment, r=-.30.

<u>Transactional Leadership Style correlation with total Organizational Commitment</u>
Reviewing table (5.28) reveals that the Pearson correlation coefficient =0.307 and P-value =0.000 which is smaller that the level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$, then there is a significant positive relationship between the transactional leadership style of UNRWA Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' organizational commitment. Therefore, the null hypothesis **H2** is rejected.

Transactional leadership subscales maintained the same pattern of correlation with all dimensions of organizational commitment, i.e. CR and MbEA had positive significant correlations with affective and normative commitment, while MbEP had either a negative or negligible relationship with continuance commitment. Overall, transactional leadership subscales correlated, with organizational commitment as follows: CR, r=.410, MbEA, r=.324, and MbEP, r=-.162.

These correlations suggest that leadership behaviors involving providing staff with assistance in exchange of their efforts, explaining the responsibility of achieving performance targets, and making a clear rewarding scheme or dealing with complaints and failure and directing staff attention toward failures to meet standards are positively

related, while behaviors involving waiting until problems become serious before correcting or ignoring problems completely, are negatively correlated, to how employees feel about **wanting** to, **have** to and **obliged** to stay with UNRWA.

This implies that supervisors should minimize as much as they can the management-by-exception (passive), so as enhance the desire and obligation of their subordinates to remain with UNRWA.

5.3.3 The relationship between Laissez-faire Leadership Style and Organizational Commitment.

H3: *There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the perceived laissez-faire leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' organizational commitment*. This hypothesis creates three sub-hypotheses that link the laissez-faire leadership style with the three dimensions of organizational commitment, **H3.1, H3.2 & H3.3.** Table (5.29) shows the results.

Table 5.29 Correlation between Laissez-faire Leadership Style and Organizational Commitment

Leadership Style	Organizational Commitment	Pearson Correlation	P-Value
Laissez-faire	Affective	-.255*	0.000
	Continuance	.176*	0.000
	Normative	-.190*	0.000
	Organizational Commitments	**-.114***	**0.003**

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

H3.1 *There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the laissez-faire leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' affective organizational commitment*.

Reviewing table (5.29) reveals that the Pearson correlation coefficient =-0.255 and P-value =0.000 which is smaller than the level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$, then there is a significant negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' affective commitment. Therefore, the null hypothesis **H3.1**, is rejected.

This expected result goes with (Brown, 2003) study, where she verified this relationship as significant negative (r=-.39); and (Khashaly, 2003), concluded similarly, with even feebler correlation (r=-.038). (Cheng, 2003) had not include LF in his model.

H3.2   *There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the laissez-faire leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' continuance organizational commitment.*

Reviewing table (5.29) reveals that the Pearson correlation coefficient =0.176 and P-value =0.000 which is smaller that the level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$, then there is a significant positive, though weak, relationship between laissez-faire leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' continuance commitment; then, the null hypothesis **H3.2** is rejected. (Khashaly, 2003; and Brown, 2003) found insignificant correlation between laissez-faire style and continuance commitment.

H3.3   *There is no significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the laissez-faire leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' normative organizational commitment.*

Reviewing table (5.29) reveals that the Pearson correlation coefficient =-0.190 and P-value =0.000 which is smaller than the level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$, then there is a significant negative relationship between the laissez-faire leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' normative commitment. Therefore, the null hypothesis **H3.3**, is rejected.

This goes with (Brown, 2003) study, where she verified this relationship as significant negative (r=-.18); (Khashaly, 2003), concluded similarly, with higher correlation (r=-.41); (Cheng, 2003) had not include LF in his model.

Laissez-faire correlation with total Organizational Commitment
Checking table (5.28) reveals that the Pearson correlation coefficient =-0.114 and P-value (Sig.) =0.003 which is smaller than the level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$, then there is a significant negative relationship between the laissez-faire leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' organizational commitment. Therefore, the null hypothesis **H3**, is rejected.

This correlation suggest that leadership behaviors involving avoidance of making decisions and delaying response to urgent matters or ignoring problems completely, are

negatively though not very strongly, related to how employees feel about **wanting,** or **obliged** to stay with UNRWA. However, study found, unexpectedly, these leadership behaviours are positively, though weak, with how staff have to stay with UNRWA. This implies that UNRWA supervisors should refrain form exercising laissez-faire leadership style, so as enhance the level of commitment of their subordinates. This result goes with (Brown, 2003; and Khashaly, 2003); where (Cheng, 2003) had not include Laissez-faire style his model.

5.3.4 Relationship between Overall Leadership Styles and Organizational Commitment

Answering the third question of the study "**Is there any relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment?"**

1. The study concluded that there is a significant positive relationship between the perceived leadership style and organizational commitment. This relationship is significant positive between both transformational and transactional leadership styles and organizational commitment. However, this positive correlation was stronger in the transformational than transactional. The relationship between the perceived laissez-faire leadership style and organizational commitment was significant negative. These results go with (Dale & Fox, 2008; Walumbwa, et. al., 2008; Abu-Nada, 2007; Brown, 2003; Khashaly, 2003; Chang, 2003; Ayman, 2003; Khashaly, 2003; and Rowden, 2000).

2. To refine this conclusion, paragraph 1 above, the researcher repeated a multiple regression analysis between the leadership styles, excluding laissez-faire, with organizational commitment. Table (5.30) shows the results.

Table 5.30 Overall Leadership Styles (without LF) correlation with Organizational Commitment

	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	Organizational Commitment
P. Correlation	.509*	.031	.381*	.409*
P-Value	.000	.228	.000	.000
N	589	589	589	589

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table (5.30) reveals that the total leadership style (without laissez-faire) had a significant positive correlation with organizational commitment, r=.409. This relationship carried on the same pattern with affective commitment and normative commitment, where correlation with affective was stronger than normative

commitment. Also, results indicate that leadership style had a non-significant correlation with continuance commitment.

2. The study surprisingly arrived at a positive significant relationship, though weak, between laissez-faire leadership style and continuance commitment. This positive correlation is not supported by any other studies; (Brown, 2003; and Khashaly) found non-significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and continuance commitment. Considering its non-significant correlation with almost all transformational and transactional leadership subscales, the researcher checked the internal correlation of continuance commitment, together with other dimensions, and overall organizational commitment to validate the suitability of the utilized model, of Mayer and Allen, 1997, to the empirical study. Table (5.31) shows the results.

Table (5.31) Correlation Matrix between the Organizational Commitment Dimensions

Organizational Commitment	Affective		Continuance		Normative		Organizational Commitment	
	Pearson	Sig.	Pearson	Sig.	Pearson	Sig.	Pearson	Sig.
Affective Commitment	1		.077(*)	0.031	.793(*)	0.000	.827(*)	0.000
Continuance Commitment	.077(*)	0.031	1		.182(*)	0.000	.580(*)	0.000
Normative Commitment	.793(*)	0.000	.182(*)	0.000	1		.850(*)	0.000
Organizational Commitment	**.827(*)**	**0.000**	**.580(*)**	**0.000**	**.850(*)**	**0.000**	**1**	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 5.31 shows that the three dimensions were correlated to each other and with the overall organizational commitment. The correlation for affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment with overall organizational commitment was positive and ranging between r= .580 and r=.850.

Therefore, the researcher ascribed these unusual results (positive correlation between continuance commitment and laissez-faire; and lack of statistically significant correlations with almost all transformational and transactional subscales) to that leadership style may not be related to how employees feel about **having to** stay with UNRWA. Rather, continuance commitment is more likely related to transferability of skills and alternative employment opportunities (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This finding may provide an opportunity for additional research to investigate deeply the continuance commitment in UNRWA and its relation with other factors including the leadership behaviors.

3. Another interesting result that within transactional leadership, the only subscale that showed negative or negligible positive correlations with all organizational commitment constructs was the management-by-exception (passive). This initiated the need to analyse the inter-correlation of the nine full range leadership factors; table (5.32) shows the results.

Analysing table (5.32) indicates high inter-correlations among the five transformational subscales (IIB, IIA, IM, IS & IC), ranging between r= .808 and r=.847. Also, these subscales were strongly correlated with transformational leadership style, with correlation factor ranging between r=.920 and r=.946. All correlations were statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ level, even lower at p<01.

Transactional leadership subscales showed a positive significant correlation between contingent reward and management-by-exception (active), r=.686, while negatively correlated with management-by-exception (passive), r=-.348 and -.105 respectively. This result disagree with Avolio & Bass (1995), where they found that management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive) subscales were inter-correlated at r=.28.

Transactional leadership showed a positive strong correlations with contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), r=.725 and r=.817 respectively, however a weaker positive correlation with management-by-exception (passive), r=.316.

Examining the inter-correlation between laissez-faire leadership style and all other eight factors of full-range leadership theory exposes, a negative correlation range between r=-.247 and r=-.486, with all transformational and transactional subscales with the exception of management-by-exception(passive), where it showed a positive strong correlation at r=.638!.

Table (5.32) Correlation Matrix between the Nine Factors of Full-Range Leadership Styles

	Behaviour		Attributed		Motivation		Stimulation		Consideration		Contingent		Active		Passive	
	Pearson	Sig.	Pearson	Sig.	Pearson	Sig.	Pearson	Sig.	Pearson	Sig.	Pearson	Sig.	Pearson	Sig.	Pearson	Sig.
Behaviour	1		.847(*)	0.000	.808(*)	0.000	.833(*)	0.000	.819(*)	0.000	.831(*)	0.000	.708(*)	0.000	-.256(*)	0.000
Attributed	.847(*)	0.000	1		.833(*)	0.000	.856(*)	0.000	.847(*)	0.000	.845(*)	0.000	.686(*)	0.000	-.274(*)	0.000
Motivation	.808(*)	0.000	.833(*)	0.000	1		.803(*)	0.000	.809(*)	0.000	.783(*)	0.000	.620(*)	0.000	-.208(*)	0.000
Stimulation	.833(*)	0.000	.856(*)	0.000	.803(*)	0.000	1		.902(*)	0.000	.885(*)	0.000	.675(*)	0.000	-.345(*)	0.000
Consideration	.819(*)	0.000	.847(*)	0.000	.809(*)	0.000	.902(*)	0.000	1		.862(*)	0.000	.646(*)	0.000	-.276(*)	0.000
Transformational	**.920(*)**	**0.000**	**.941(*)**	**0.000**	**.911(*)**	**0.000**	**.946(*)**	**0.000**	**.942(*)**	**0.000**	**.903(*)**	**0.000**	**.715(*)**	**0.000**	**-.293(*)**	**0.000**
Contingent Reward	.831(*)	0.000	.845(*)	0.000	.783(*)	0.000	.885(*)	0.000	.862(*)	0.000	1		.686(*)	0.000	-.348(*)	0.000
MbEA	.708(*)	0.000	.686(*)	0.000	.620(*)	0.000	.675(*)	0.000	.646(*)	0.000	.686(*)	0.000	1		-.105(*)	0.005
MbEP	-.256(*)	0.000	-.274(*)	0.000	-.208(*)	0.000	-.345(*)	0.000	-.276(*)	0.000	-.348(*)	0.000	-.105(*)	0.005	1	
Transactional	**.686(*)**	**0.000**	**.673(*)**	**0.000**	**.643(*)**	**0.000**	**.652(*)**	**0.000**	**.664(*)**	**0.000**	**.725(*)**	**0.000**	**.817(*)**	**0.000**	**.316(*)**	**0.000**
Laissez Faire	**-.385(*)**	**0.000**	**-.448(*)**	**0.000**	**-.427(*)**	**0.000**	**-.479(*)**	**0.000**	**-.441(*)**	**0.000**	**-.486(*)**	**0.000**	**-.247(*)**	**0.000**	**.638(*)**	**0.000**
Leadership Styles	**.894(*)**	**0.000**	**.896(*)**	**0.000**	**.866(*)**	**0.000**	**.889(*)**	**0.000**	**.896(*)**	**0.000**	**.873(*)**	**0.000**	**.784(*)**	**0.000**	**-0.042**	**0.155**

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Considering this strong positive correlation and the weak inter-correlation with transactional leadership style, the researcher thinks that management-by-exception(passive), may constitute a good ground for moving management-by-exception (passive) out of transactional leadership styles, to be sit with laissez-faire style. Therefore, the nine factors of full-range leadership theory might be re-grouped into three leadership styles as follows:

a. Transformational leadership style, that constituted of, idealized influence-behaviour, idealized influence –attribute, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

b. Transactional leadership style that comprises, contingent reward, and management-by-exception (active).

c. Avoidant Leadership, that comprises and management-by-exception (passive); and laissez-faire leadership styles.

This notion of re-grouping the leadership styles factors is not new. Other researchers had similar approach while studying leadership behaviours. Brown (2003) had loaded the nine factors of full-range leadership into two main clusters:

a. Relations-oriented leadership, that includes idealized influence-behaviour, idealized influence –attributed, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration; and contingent reward.

b. Task-oriented leadership behaviors, that includes management-by-exception (active), management-by-exception (passive), and laissez-faire.

It is also supported by Innes (2004), where she utilized MLQ Form 5X-Short Form, though ultimately adopted a condensed six-factor version, where the main groups of leadership were:

a. Transformational leadership styles, which includes only three subscales: charismatic, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration.

b. Transactional leadership styles includes contingent reward and active management-by-exception.

c. The non-leadership style, laissez-faire.

While the researcher based this conclusion (moving management-by-exception-passive-out of transactional leadership style) on the empirical study, would recommend, however, additional extensive empirical studies to support this assumption.

5.3.5 Relationship between Respondents' Demographic Characteristics and their Perceived Leadership Style, and Organizational Commitment

To answer fourth question, "**Are there any significant differences, at α=0.05 level, of UNRWA staff's demographic characteristics and their perception of leadership style and organizational commitment? Analyse it, if any,** Hypothesis H4 was verified.

H4. *There is no significant difference, at α=0.05 level, among the respondents' perception of leadership style and their organizational commitment, due to demographic characteristics (gender, age, marital status, family size, academic qualifications, experience, job grade and number of training courses).*

5.3.5.1 Place of Work

The ANOVA was performed to test if there is any significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their place of work.

Table (5.33) ANOVA Test – Place of Work

Dimension	F-Value	P-value
Transformational	0.835	0.503
Transactional	0.956	0.431
Laissez Faire	0.187	0.945
Leadership styles	1.062	0.374
Affective Commitment	1.398	0.233
Continuance Commitment	5.571	0.000*
Normative Commitment	1.200	0.310
Organizational Commitment	3.409	0.009*

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Reviewing table (5.33) reveals that there was significant correlations, α = 0.05 level, among the respondents' continuance commitment and organizational commitment, while insignificant difference for their perception of leadership style. This could be construed to that UNRWA operates the same set of rules, regulations and instructions agency-wide, i.e. in all five Fields.

As ANOVA-test shows that some variables are statistically significant, a multiple comparison is performed to check where these differences were. Examining table (5.34) reveals that the continuance commitment of respondents' from Gaza Field staff is greater than those of Jordan and Syria Fields, while their overall organizational commitment is greater than those of Jordan Field.

Table (5.34): Bonferroni Test- Place of Work

Dimension	(I) Place of Work	(J) Place of Work	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
Continuance Commitment	Gaza	Jordan	.92062(*)	0.001
		SAR	.87726(*)	0.007
		Lebanon	0.33954	1.000
		West Bank	0.30725	1.000
	Jordan	SAR	-0.04336	1.000
		Lebanon	-0.58107	0.619
		West Bank	-0.61337	0.337
	SAR	Lebanon	-0.53772	1.000
		West Bank	-0.57001	0.628
	Lebanon	West Bank	-0.03229	1.000
Organizational Commitment	Gaza	Jordan	.58664(*)	0.008
		SAR	0.32710	0.868
		Lebanon	0.13110	1.000
		West Bank	0.35122	0.424
	Jordan	SAR	-0.25955	1.000
		Lebanon	-0.45554	0.491
		West Bank	-0.23543	1.000
	SAR	Lebanon	-0.19600	1.000
		West Bank	0.02412	1.000
	Lebanon	West Bank	0.22012	1.000

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The rest of comparisons were insignificant, α = 0.05. These results indicates a higher level of commitment of Gaza Field staff, which could be referred to special situation in the Gaza strip, where few job opportunities are available, hence staff would feel the desire and need to be more attached to UNRWA.

5.3.5.2 Gender

The independent sample "T-test" was performed to test if there is any significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their gender.

Reviewing table (5.35) shows that there is a non-significant relationship, at α = 0.05, between the respondent's gender and their perception of leadership style and organizational commitment, with the exception of "laissez-faire", where results indicate significant, at α = 0.05, correlation, with T-value = 3.326. Therefore, there is a significant difference between the respondents' perception of laissez-faire leadership style due to their gender. Since the sign of T-value is positive, then the mean of males' respondents is significantly higher than females.

Table (5.35) The Independent Samples T-Test - Gender

Dimension	T-Value	P-value
Transformational	-0.993	0.321
Transactional	0.134	0.893
Laissez Faire	3.326	0.001*
Leadership styles	-0.213	0.832
Affective Commitment	-0.470	0.638
Continuance Commitment	0.687	0.492
Normative Commitment	-0.231	0.817
Organizational Commitment	0.001	0.999

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

This could be ascribed to the nature of women of giving a more lenient view of leaders who are exercising laissez-faire leadership style. Female might conceive a "false" feeling of freedom, with such leadership style.

For all other dimensions, the p-value is greater than the significance level α = 0.05, therefore, there is insignificant difference between the respondents' perception of other leadership styles and organizational commitment, due to their gender. This is a likely result, up to the researcher knowledge, where UNRWA gives equal opportunities to male and female staff in all work perspectives ([1]). This result matches with (Brown, 2003; and Al-Fahdawi and Al-Qatawnah, 2004) studies; while disagrees with (Dale & Fox, 2008) who found a difference on the perception and practice of leadership style between male and female staff.

5.3.5.3 Age

The ANOVA -test was carried out to test if there is any significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their age. Reviewing table (5.36) shows that respondents' affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment and generally organizational commitment, had significant differences, α = 0.05 level, due to their age, while their perception of leadership style was insignificant different.

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[1] . UNRWA started, recently, a comprehensive "gender balance" initiative, where women committees were established, Gender Advisor post was established at the Headquarter level, with Focal point posts in each Field; and "Gender Mainstreaming" strategy is under development.

Table (5.36): ANOVA - Age

Dimension	F-Value	P-value – (Sig.)
Transformational	1.352	0.256
Transactional	1.421	0.235
Laissez Faire	2.907	0.051
Leadership styles	1.370	0.251
Affective Commitment	6.913	0.000*
Continuance Commitment	5.578	0.001*
Normative Commitment	5.509	0.001*
Organizational Commitment	9.566	0.000*

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table (5.37): Bonferroni Test - Age

Dimension	(I) Place of Work	(J) Place of Work	Mean Difference	Sig.
Affective Commitment	From 20 to less than 30 years	From 30 to Less than 40 years	.92652(*)	0.001
		From 40 to less than 50 years	0.29422	1.000
		50 years and above	0.06227	1.000
	From 30 to Less than 40 years	From 40 to less than 50 years	-.63230(*)	0.012
		50 years and above	-.86425(*)	0.006
	From 40 to less than 50	50 years and above	-0.23195	1.000
Continuance Commitment	From 20 to less than 30 years	From 30 to Less than 40 years	.91413(*)	0.000
		From 40 to less than 50 years	.69027(*)	0.016
		50 years and above	.75090(*)	0.042
	From 30 to Less than 40 years	From 40 to less than 50 years	-0.22386	1.000
		50 years and above	-0.16323	1.000
	From 40 to less than 50	50 years and above	0.06063	1.000
Normative Commitment	From 20 to less than 30 years	From 30 to Less than 40 years	.67145(*)	0.007
		From 40 to less than 50 years	0.19176	1.000
		50 years and above	-0.05631	1.000
	From 30 to Less than 40 years	From 40 to less than 50 years	-.47969(*)	0.039
		50 years and above	-.72776(*)	0.008
	From 40 to less than 50	50 years and above	-0.24808	1.000
Organizational Commitment	From 20 to less than 30 years	From 30 to Less than 40 years	.84601(*)	0.000
		From 40 to less than 50 years	0.40162	0.099
		50 years and above	0.27037	1.000
	From 30 to Less than 40 years	From 40 to less than 50 years	-.44439(*)	0.011
		50 years and above	-.57564(*)	0.010
	From 40 to less than 50	50 years and above	-0.13124	1.000

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Examining the multiple comparison, table (5.37) indicates that that there is a negative relationship between UNRWA staff age and their organizational commitment, generally. These results could be referred to the fact that young staff, who normally joined the agency recently are ambitious and more enthusiastic towards their job than older ones; and thus are more committed.

This conclusion corresponds with (Abu-Nada, 2007), while (Al-Fahdawi & Qatawna, 2004) found mixed relationship; they found the commitment was in favour of the categories "46-55 years", and "36-45 years", while categories "over 50" & "20-35" have lesser level of commitment. The researcher presume that the difference of the environment of the latter study, which was nun in the southern Jordanian provinces, resulted in that young staff would continue seeking work opportunities in private sectors where penitential for career development and higher salaries, while older employees would feel tired and saturated.

5.5.3.4 Marital Status

The data collected for "Marital Status" showed only 6 widows and 10 divorce respondents, which represents 1% and 1.7%, respectively of the overall sample. It was believed that it will be unfair to include them in the comparison. Therefore, the independent sample "T-test" was carried out to test if there is any significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their marital status (single or married).

Table (5.38): The Independent Samples T-test - Marital Status

Dimension	T-Value	P-value – (Sig.)
Transformational	0.117	0.907
Transactional	0.558	0.577
Laissez Faire	1.602	0.110
Leadership styles	0.540	0.589
Affective Commitment	1.096	0.274
Continuance Commitment	-0.038	0.970
Normative Commitment	1.596	0.111
Organizational Commitment	1.029	0.304

Reviewing table (5.38) shows the p-value is greater than the significance level $\alpha = 0.05$, for all dimensions. Therefore, there is insignificant difference between the respondents' perceived leadership style and organizational commitment due to employee's marital status.

This result could be attributed to that UNRWA neither put any limitation for new applicants, applying for vacancies, nor does it differentiate among staff based on their marital status. This result is similar to (Al-Ahmadi, 2004; and Khashaly, 2003), while differs from (Abu Nada, 2007).

5.5.3.5 Family Size

The ANOVA was completed to test if there is any significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their family size.

Table 5.39 ANOVA Test - Family Size

Dimension	F-Value	P-value
Transformational	2.152	0.093
Transactional	0.451	0.717
Laissez Faire	1.454	0.226
Leadership styles	1.517	0.209
Affective Commitment	2.638	0.049*
Continuance Commitment	0.227	0.878
Normative Commitment	2.772	0.041*
Organizational Commitment	2.489	0.059

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table (5.39) illustrates that respondents' affective commitment and normative commitment had significant differences, at $\alpha = 0.05$ level, while their perception of leadership style was insignificant different, due to their family size.

Table (5.40): Bonferroni Test - Family Size

Dimension	(I) Family Size	(J) Family Size	Mean Difference	Sig.
Affective Commitment	1-3	4-5	0.37606	0.251
		6-7	0.28700	0.500
		8 and above	-0.27599	0.500
	4-5	6-7	-0.08906	0.500
		8 and above	-0.65205	0.034*
	6-7	8 and above	-0.56299	0.134
Normative Commitment	1-3	4-5	0.23760	0.500
		6-7	-0.10396	0.500
		8 and above	-0.36507	0.362
	4-5	6-7	-0.34155	0.231
		8 and above	-.60267	0.019*
	6-7	8 and above	-0.26111	0.500

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Reviewing the multiple comparison, table (5.40), reveals that the respondents' affective commitment and normative commitment were statistically greater with bigger families. These results suggest that there is a relatively positive relationship between the family size and the organizational commitment (affective and normative).

This could be referred to that staff member with bigger family size would feel more responsible towards feeding and raising families, so as feel more commitment to the Agency.

5.5.3.6 Academic Qualification

The data collected for "Academic Qualification" shows that only 6 respondents with "High School", represent 1%, which considered too diminutive to be included in the comparison. Thus the ANOVA test was completed to check if there is any significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their academic qualifications for three categories only: Diploma, BA and Post Graduate.

Table 5.41 ANOVA Test - Academic Qualifications

Dimension	F-Value	P-value
Transformational	2.512	0.082
Transactional	2.762	0.064
Laissez Faire	6.779	0.001*
Leadership styles	2.059	0.129
Affective Commitment	3.338	0.036*
Continuance Commitment	16.089	0.000*
Normative Commitment	4.865	0.008*
Organizational Commitment	11.282	0.000*

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Reviewing table (5.41) reveals that respondents views for laissez faire , affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment, and total organizational commitment, were statistically significant, α = 0.05 level, due to their academic qualifications. For the other dimensions, the p-value is greater than the significance, α = 0.05 level, therefore, there is insignificant difference. between the respondents due to their academic qualifications.

Table 5.42 Bonferroni Test - Academic Qualification

Dependent Variable	(I) Academic Qualification	(J) Academic Qualification	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
Laissez Faire	Diploma	BA	-0.22118	1.000
		Post Graduate	-.81116(*)	0.003
	BA	Post Graduate	-.58998(*)	0.008
Affective Commitment	Diploma	BA	0.43422	0.177
		Post Graduate	.62747(*)	0.031
	BA	Post Graduate	0.19324	0.941
Continuance Commitment	Diploma	BA	0.32264	0.362
		Post Graduate	1.11916(*)	0.000
	BA	Post Graduate	.79652(*)	0.000
Normative Commitment	Diploma	BA	.57294(*)	0.011
		Post Graduate	.58492(*)	0.016
	BA	Post Graduate	0.01198	1.000
Organizational Commitment	Diploma	BA	.43718(*)	0.017
		Post Graduate	.78825(*)	0.000
	BA	Post Graduate	.35107(*)	0.023

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Reviewing the multiple comparisons, table (5.42), reveals that:

a) There is a positive relationship between academic qualifications and their perception of laissez-faire leadership style. Staff with higher qualifications will be more sensitive to their supervisor behaviour, thus their perception of the absence of leadership (laissez-faire) style is more than those staff with lesser qualifications.

This result diverts from (Abu-Samra & Ghneim, 2007) study, where diploma holders perceived laissez-faire leadership style more than those who have higher qualifications.

b) There is a negative relationship between academic qualification and organizational commitment, and with its three constructs: affective, continuance and normative commitment, where higher qualifications respondents had less commitment. This could be ascribed to that staff with lower qualification would find it difficult to get another job outside UNRWA, while those staff with higher qualification would feel more confident of the possibility to find another job outside UNRWA. Also, different "cost-benefit" analysis as perceived by higher qualifications staff than those with lower qualifications.

This result corresponds with (Abu-Nada, 2007; Al-Ahmadi, 2004; Al-Fahdawi, & Al-Qatawnah, 2004; and Rowden, 2002) where they all found a similar negative relationship between academic qualification (education level) and organizational

commitment. However, it diverts from (Khashaly, 2003 and Brown, 2003), who both concluded insignificant difference between respondents' academic qualifications and their commitment. Nevertheless, (Brown, 2003) found that there is statistically significant difference, in affective commitment, between employees who had not completed high school and those who possessed a BA degree, however, without identifying where the source of this difference.

It is worth noting that UNRWA is adopting "rank-in-post" approach rather than "rank-in-staff", which means the position and level of a staff member will be decided based on the a pre-determined post level and grade, regardless of personal qualification of staff member actually holds. This implies additional stress factor towards lowering commitment, especially if higher qualification staff accepted a lower grade offer or who developed their qualification during their employment with UNRWA.

5.5.3.7 Experience with UNRWA

The ANOVA test was performed to verify if there is any significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their experience with UNRWA. Table (5.43) illustrates the results.

Table 5.41 ANOVA – Experience with UNRWA

Dimension	F-Value	P-value
Transformational	1.813	0.144
Transactional	2.253	0.081
Laissez Faire	0.923	0.429
Leadership styles	1.983	0.115
Affective Commitment	3.625	0.013*
Continuance Commitment	2.607	0.051
Normative Commitment	3.323	0.019*
Organizational Commitment	1.401	0.242

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Reviewing table (5.43) reveals that respondents' affective commitment and normative commitment had a significant difference, $\alpha = 0.05$ level, due to their work tenure with UNRWA, while their perception of leadership style was insignificant different.

This diverts from (Moore & Rudd, 2006), where they found that with the exception of tenure in the Extension, the demographics characteristics did not significantly influence transactional leadership style on an individual basis. (Huang, et al, 2006) found that while participative leadership behaviour tended to make short-tenure employees feel competent and thus, more committed to an organization, such leadership behaviour did not have a significant impact on competence as well as organizational commitment for long tenure employees.

Table (5.44): Bonferroni Test - Experience with UNRWA

Dependent Variable	(I) Experience with UNRWA	(J) Experience with UNRWA	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
Affective Commitment	Less than 5 years	5 to less than 10 years	-0.27694	0.500
		10 years to less than 15	-0.30113	0.419
		15 years and above	-1.20339(*)	0.005
	5 to less than 10 years	10 years to less than 15	-0.02419	0.500
		15 years and above	-0.92645	0.069
	10 years to less than 15	15 years and above	-0.90226	0.072
Normative Commitment	Less than 5 years	5 to less than 10 years	0.09305	0.500
		10 years to less than 15	-0.33713	0.165
		15 years and above	-0.77860	0.056
	5 to less than 10 years	10 years to less than 15	-0.43018	0.122
		15 years and above	-0.87165(*)	0.039
	10 years to less than 15	15 years and above	-0.44147	0.500

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Analysing the multiple comparisons, table (5.44), indicates that there is a positive relationship between experience with UNRWA and both affective and normative commitment, where more years of experience respondents had, more commitment would be. This could be construed to that experienced staff become more knowledgeable about their jobs and be independent in their profession. They build a strong relationship with colleagues and supervisor, where their views are considered in setting the objectives, so as sharing in decision making. Consequently experienced staff would feel emotionally attached, and obliged to the organization. (Khashaly, 2003) could not find statistical significant difference among the respondents affective or normative commitment due to their years of experience.

It worth noting that if we consider affective commitment and normative commitment as constituting the great bundle of organization commitment, thus assuming staff would have same trend of positive relationship between their tenure and organization commitment; then we can see this result matches with (Al-Ahmadi, 2004). However, this result diverts with (Abu –Nada, 2007), where she found a negative relationship and explained this as "the need of less years of experience category for developing their skills and the lack of availability of other job opportunities" (Abu-Nada, 2007, p. 221).

5.5.3.8 Job Grade

The researcher aimed to figure out the relative comparison among staff responses based on their salaries' level. However, due to sensitivity and as it is evident that moving from lower grade to upper one meaning, definitely, higher salaries ([1]), the researcher re-phrased the question to be "job grade" implying the level of salary. Should this study run in one geographical location (UNRWA Field), it would have been possible to turn grades categories into salary levels.

The ANOVA test was performed to verify if there is any significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their job/ salary level.

Table 5.45 ANOVA Test – Job Grade

Dimension	F-Value	P-value
Transformational	0.592	0.620
Transactional	2.002	0.113
Laissez Faire	0.452	0.716
Leadership styles	0.889	0.447
Affective Commitment	1.015	0.386
Continuance Commitment	18.681	0.000*
Normative Commitment	0.589	0.622
Organizational Commitment	3.670	0.012*

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Assessing table (5.45) tells that respondents' continuance commitment and organizational commitment had significant differences, α = 0.05 level, due to their job grade. For the other dimensions, the p-value is greater than the significance level α = 0.05; therefore, there is insignificant difference between the respondents' perceived leadership style and their experience with UNRWA. This goes with (Moore & Rudd, 2006).

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[1] . UNRWA salary scale is built in 20 grades, where grade 01 is the lowest level, thus getting the least salary, while grade 20 is the highest level, hence getting the greatest salary.

Table 5.46 Bonferroni Test - Job Grade

Dependent Variable	(I) Job Grade	(J) Job Grade	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
Continuance Commitment	Grades 5-8	9-12	0.39977	0.200
		13-16	1.05794(*)	0.000
		17-20	1.95210(*)	0.000
	Grades 9-12	13-16	.65817(*)	0.007
		17-20	1.55233(*)	0.000
	Grades 13-16	17-20	.89416(*)	0.020
Organizational Commitment	Grades 5-8	9-12	0.19348	1.000
		13-16	.49166(*)	0.018
		17-20	0.50379	0.155
	Grades 9-12	13-16	0.29817	0.325
		17-20	0.31030	0.931
	Grades 13-16	17-20	0.01213	1.000

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Assessing the multiple comparisons, table (5.46), indicates that there is a negative relationship between the respondent's grade / salary level and level of commitment. More salaries staff got, they showed less commitment level. This could be ascribed to that staff with higher grades/salaries are normally those who having higher qualifications, thus could move easily to other jobs outside UNRWA, without constituting a great sacrifice. With such high qualifications, that are likely most required in manpower market, they probably could have other job opportunities outside URNWA with similar salaries and fringe benefits or even better.

It is quite interesting noting that this negative relationship between respondents' grade/salary and commitment matches similar negative correlations between "academic qualifications" and commitment, (paragraph 5.5.3.5, above), which donated to the internal consistency of the study.

This result complies with (Al-Ahmadi, 2004; and Khashaly, 2003), while diverts from (Kuvaas, 2006), where after controlling for organizational tenure, education, gender, perceived unit support, perceptions of distributive and procedural justice, and type of pay plan, the latter study found that base pay level, but not bonus level, was positively related to both self-reported work performance and commitment. This could be conveyed to the different work environment, in the latter study, where it had selected its sample among knowledge workers from two business units in a large Norwegian multinational company.

5.5.3.8 Training Courses During the Current Job

The ANOVA test was performed to verify if there is any significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to the number of training courses they got during the current job.

Table (5.47) ANOVA Test -Training Courses

Dimension	F-Value	P-value
Transformational	0.292	0.831
Transactional	1.429	0.233
Laissez Faire	0.593	0.620
Leadership styles	0.740	0.529
Affective Commitment	2.169	0.091
Continuance Commitment	6.632	0.000*
Normative Commitment	3.356	0.019*
Organizational Commitment	4.001	0.008*

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Checking table (5.47) shows that that respondents' continuance commitment, normative commitment and organizational commitment had a significant difference, α= 0.05 level, due to the number training courses they got during their current job, while their perception of leadership style was insignificant different.

Table (5.48): Bonferroni Test -Training Courses in the Current Job

Dependent Variable	(I) Training courses	(J) Training courses	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
Continuance Commitment	No courses	1-3	.82832(*)	0.001
		4-6	0.55301	0.094
		7 and more	.97926(*)	0.000
	1-3 courses	4-6	-0.27531	0.500
		7 and more	0.15094	0.500
	4-6 courses	7 and more	0.42625	0.207
Normative Commitment	No courses	1-3	0.50341(*)	0.045
		4-6	0.58119(*)	0.041
		7 and more	0.14572	0.500
	1-3 courses	4-6	0.07778	0.500
		7 and more	-0.35769	0.154
	4-6 courses	7 and more	-0.43547	0.127
Organizational Commitment	No courses	1-3	.56517(*)	0.002
		4-6	0.47854	0.037
		7 and more	0.34236	0.148
	1-3 courses	4-6	-0.08664	0.500
		7 and more	-0.22281	0.405
	4-6 courses	7 and more	-0.13618	0.500

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Reviewing the multiple comparisons, table (5.48), reveals that there are a negative significant relationships, α= 0.05 level, among respondents' continuance commitment, normative commitment and organizational commitment, due to the number of training courses they got; though their perception of leadership style was insignificant different.

While the researcher anticipated a high committed staff with more training courses they got, at least in the continuance commitment where staff member should have perceived the training courses as an investment in his/her career with UNRWA, and thus would consider leaving job as costly option, the study concluded the opposite. This could be explained by that staff do not consider these training courses as relevant and beneficial to their development and enhancement of their knowledge, skills and attitude. It also, could be referred to the bureaucratic system UNRWA have, that won't allow a new knowledge gained through training to be implemented. UNRWA might need to develop a succinct training strategy, where appropriate need assessment, professional training and post-training evaluation, constitute a great bundle of it.

This serious result worth additional deeper research, especially if we know that UNRWA invests a lot of resources towards training programmes[1].

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[1] . UNRWA's budget for training during 2008, was about 3.66 million dollars- Agency wide.

Chapter 6 – Summary, Conclusion and Recommendation

This chapter compiles the relevant conclusion and recommendations as outcome of the data collected analysis and hypotheses verifications.

6.1 Conclusion

The researcher had, upon the completion of this study, drawn the following conclusions:

6.1.1 Demographic Characteristics

The study considered the local staff working in UNRWA, between grade 05 and 20. The valid responses are 589 questionnaires. Based on its rational distribution (among Fields, Departments, gender and grades), the researcher believed that the sample is well-representing the study society, and therefore, the study results could be generalized to all UNRWA local staff, safely.

67% of the sample was "mature" staff, aged 30 to 50 years; and about half of it had less than ten years experience with UNRWA. Most of the sample held an BA (47%); and about 80% of the sample members got at least one training course during their current job.

6.1.2 The Dominant Leadership Style

1. The transformational leadership style was not dominant behaviour exercised by UNRWA supervisors, as perceived by their subordinates; this leadership style was utilized 58.4%. Transformational leadership subscales results were as follows:

   a. Idealized influence (behaviour) was not dominant, utilized 59.5%; UNRWA staff didn't perceive their supervisors as considering the moral and ethical consequences of their decisions, talking about their most important values and believes, and emphasizing the importance of having collective sense of mission and support team spirit.

   b. Idealized influence (attributed) was not dominant, utilized 57%; UNRWA staff hadn't find their supervisors infusing pride in them, sacrificing their self-interest for the group interest, having leadership skills or displaying sense of power and confidence.

   c. Inspirational motivation was utilized 63.1%. UNRWA staff could perceive, to some extent, their supervisors as talking optimistically about the future and shows confidence that the set goals will be achieved, however, they could not see their supervisors as talking enthusiastically when setting goals and objectives to be accomplished or articulating a compelling vision of the future. Generally, this type of leadership passed the hypothesized value (60%), but still not strongly prevailing.

d. Intellectual stimulation was not dominant, exercised 55.9%; UNRWA staff could not perceive their supervisors as re-examining critical assumption to questions whether they were appropriate, seeking different perspectives when solving problems, getting staff to look at problems from different angles, suggesting new ways at how to complete assignments, and encouraging creativity and innovative thinking and reframe problems in order to gain new perspectives.

e. Individual consideration was not dominant, practiced 56.3%; UNRWA staff could not perceive their supervisors as mentors who pay attention to their individual needs for growth and achievement, spending time teaching and coaching staff, treating them as individuals rather than just a number of a group, and as encouraging them to strive for higher levels of attainment by pursuing challenges.

2. The transactional leadership style was not dominant behaviour exercised by UNRWA supervisors, as perceived by their subordinates. UNRWA supervisors were utilizing this leadership style 55.8%; its subscales results were as follows:

a. Contingent reward, wan not dominant; practiced 56.9%; UNRWA staff could not perceive their supervisors as providing staff with assistance in exchange of their efforts, explaining the responsibility of achieving performance targets, and making a clear rewarding scheme.

b. Management-by-exception (active) was exercised 60.5%; UNRWA staff could perceive their supervisors, to some extent, as focusing on irregularities and mistakes, concentrating on dealing with complaints and failure and directing staff attention toward failures to meet standards. Therefore, management-by-exception (active) was not strongly dominant.

c. Management-by-exception (passive) was not dominant, practised 49.8%; UNRWA staff could not perceive their supervisor failing to interfere until problems become serious, waits for things to go wrong before taking action, believe in "if it is not broke, don't fix it", or demonstrating that problems must become chronic before taking action.

3. Laissez-faire leadership style was not dominant, utilized 46.1%; UNRWA staff perceived their supervisor, rarely, avoiding get involved when important issues arise, being absent when needed, evading making decisions or delaying responding to urgent questions. However, considering its negative impact, and its higher level compared to other studies, UNRWA supervisors should minimize this type of leadership, further.

4. Analysing the mean of nine factors of full range leadership theory reveals that no leadership style was dominant over other styles. The overall leadership style was 56.1%, which is considered low (compared with the hypothesized value 60%). Even, when excluding laissez-faire leadership style, the overall leadership was blow 60%, where the study calculated its value at 57.4%. This result suggests that UNRWA staff could not see their supervisors as "LEADERS" having charisma, inspiring, motivating, and stimulating towards achieving a challenging goal, but, up the researcher judgment, as "MANAGERS", who perform the function in the right manner, with the help of subordinates, giving reward for good performance and punishment for bad one, rather.

6.1.3 The Type and Level of Organizational Commitment

1. The overall organizational commitment was average. Analysing the three dimensions of organizational commitment, showed that the strongest organizational commitment was affective commitment, followed by normative commitment, however insignificant at $\alpha = 0.05$; and finally a weaker continuance commitment; these results were as follows:

   a. Affective commitment level was 64.4%; URNWA staff showed a moderate level of **desire** to work with UNRWA, they were, moderately, feeling as they belong to "family" and emotionally attached to, feel proud when talking with others about UNRWA.

   c. Continuance commitment level was 56.4%; UNRWA staff didn't believe that it would affect their lives, negatively, if decided to leave UNRWA's job, and they didn't feel they **have** to stay with UNRWA.

   d. Normative commitment level was 60.8%, however, insignificant at $\alpha = 0.05$ level; UNRWA staff didn't have a dominant feeling of obligation to remain with UNRWA that deserves all their commitment, won't feel guilty if decided to leave their job, and even don't hold a sense of obligation towards their colleagues.

2. This indicates that UNRWA staff feeling of "desire" was stronger than the feeling of "obligation" or "need" to continue work in the Agency. This is an important result since affective commitment has been found to correlate with a wide range of outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism, job performance and organizational citizenship behaviour. However, continuance and normative commitment need a special attention from UNRWA's administration.

6.1.4 Relationship between the Perceived Leadership Style and Organizational Commitment

A.   Transformational leadership style with Organizational Commitment

1.   There is a positive significant, α=0.05 level, between the perceived transformational leadership style of UNRWA Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates affective, normative and total commitment, while insignificant with continuance commitment.

2.   The findings suggests that leadership style which involves building trust, inspiring a shared vision, encouraging creativity, emphasizing development, and recognizing accomplishments is positively related to how employees feel about **wanting, and obliged,** to stay with UNRWA. However, the correlation was stronger with the desire feeling than obligation.

3.   The lack of statistically significant correlation between the transformational leadership style and continuance commitment, suggests that leadership style may not be related to how employees feel about **having to** stay with UNRWA. Rather, continuance commitment is more likely related to transferability of skills and alternative employment opportunities.

B.   Transactional leadership style with Organizational Commitment

1.   There is a positive significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the transactional leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' affective, continuance – though very weak, normative and total organizational commitment.

2.   These correlations suggest that leadership behaviors involving providing staff with assistance in exchange of their efforts, explaining the responsibility of achieving performance targets, and making a clear rewarding scheme and directing staff attention toward failures to meet standards are positively, while behaviors involving waiting until problems become serious before correcting or ignoring problems completely are negatively, correlated to how employees feel about **wanting**, **have** and **obliged,** to stay with UNRWA.

C.   Laissez-faire style with Organizational Commitment

1.   There is a negative significant relationship, at α=0.05 level, between the laissez-faire leadership style of the Field/Department supervisors and their subordinates' affective, normative and total organizational commitment, positive significant with continuance organizational commitment.

2. These correlations suggest that leadership behaviors involving avoidance of making decisions and delaying response to urgent matters or ignoring problems completely, are negatively related to how employees feel about **wanting**, or **obliged,** to stay with UNRWA. However, study found, unexpectedly, these leadership behaviours positively, though weak, with how staff have to stay with UNRWA.

D. Overall Leadership styles with Organizational Commitment

1. The study concluded that there is a significant positive relationship between the perceived leadership style and organizational commitment; this relationship maintained the same pattern even when running a regression for the second time excluding laissez-faire from the total leadership style.

2. The positive significant correlation between transformational and organizational commitment was stronger than that of transactional.

3. Considering the unusual positive significant relationship, though weak, the continuance commitment had with laissez-faire leadership style, and its non-significant correlation with almost all transformational and transactional leadership subscales, an inter-correlation analysis was conducted. The researcher concluded that management-by-exception (passive) could be moved out of transactional leadership style to sit with laissez-faire as avoidant/ passive leadership style.

6.1.5 Relationship between Demographic Characteristics and the Perceived Leadership Style, and Organizational Commitment

There were varied patterns of difference, at $\alpha=0.05$ level, among the respondents' perception of leadership style and their organizational commitment, due to their demographic characteristics (place of work, gender, age, marital status, family size, academic qualifications, experience, job grade and number of training courses). These relationships were as follow:

A. Place of Work

1. There are significant correlations, $\alpha = 0.05$ level, among the respondents' continuance commitment and organizational commitment, while their perceived leadership style was insignificant. This could be referred to that UNRWA operates the same set of rules, regulations and instructions agency-wide, i.e. in all five Fields.

2. The continuance commitment of respondents' from Gaza Field staff is greater than those of Jordan and Syria Fields, while their overall organizational commitment is greater than those of Jordan Field. The rest of comparisons were insignificant, α = 0.05. Therefore, this (only) indicates a higher level of commitment of Gaza Field staff, which could be referred to special situation in the Gaza strip, where few job opportunities are available other than UNRWA, where staff would feel the desire and need to be more attached.

B. Gender

There are insignificant difference, at α = 0.05, among the respondent's gender and their perception of leadership style and organizational commitment, with the exception of "laissez-faire", for the favour of male. This could be ascribed to the nature of women of giving a more lenient view of leaders who are exercising laissez-faire leadership style. Female might conceive a "false" feeling of freedom, with such leadership style

C. Age

1. Respondents' affective, continuance, normative and total organizational commitment, had significant differences, α = 0.05 level, due to their age, while their perceived leadership style was insignificant different.

2. The significant correlation was negative between the UNRWA staff age and their organizational commitment, generally. This result could be endorsed to that young staff, who normally joined the agency recently, are ambitious and more enthusiastic towards their job than older ones; and thus are showing more commitment to the Agency.

D. Marital Status

There are insignificant differences, α = 0.05 level, between the respondents' perceived leadership style and organizational commitment due to their marital status. This result could be attributed to that UNRWA neither puts any limitation for new applicants, applying for vacancies, nor does it differentiate among staff based on their marital status.

E. Family Size

1. Respondents' affective and normative commitment had significant differences, at α = 0.05 level, due to their family sizes, while their perception of leadership style was insignificant different.

2. These results suggest that there is a relatively positive relationship between the family size and the organizational commitment (affective and normative). Staff member with bigger family size would feel more responsible towards feeding and raising their families, so as sense more commitment to work.

F. Academic Qualification

1. Respondents views for laissez faire style, affective, continuance, normative and total organizational commitment were statistically significant, $\alpha = 0.05$ level, due to their academic qualifications, while insignificant different for other dimensions.

2. The result indicates that there was a positive relationship between respondents' academic qualifications and their perception of laissez-faire leadership style. Staff with higher qualifications will be more sensitive to their supervisor behaviour, thus their perception of the absence of leadership (laissez-faire) style is more than those staff with lesser qualifications.

3. The results indicate negative relationships between respondents' academic qualifications and organizational commitment with its three dimensions. This could be referred to that staff with lower qualification would find it difficult to find another job, or feel it is costly to leave, UNRWA, while those staff with higher qualification would be more ambitious and feel more confident of the possibility to find another job outside UNRWA.

G. Experience with UNRWA

1. Respondents' affective and normative commitment had significant differences, $\alpha = 0.05$ level, due to their work tenure with UNRWA, while their perception of leadership style was insignificant different.

2. The results indicate that there are positive relationships between the respondents' experience with UNRWA and both affective and normative commitment. This could be referred to that experienced staff become more knowledgeable about their jobs and have more independent, built a strong relationship with colleagues and supervisor so as sharing in decision making, consequently would feel desire and obligation to stay with UNRWA.

H. Job Grade

1. There were significant differences between respondents' continuance and total organizational commitment, due to their job/ salary level, while their perception of leadership style was insignificant different.

2.   The results indicate negative relationships between the respondent's grade/ salary and organizational commitment. This could be attributed to that staff with higher grades/salaries are normally those who have higher qualifications, thus could move easily to other jobs outside UNRWA, without constituting a great sacrifice. With such high qualifications, most likely required in manpower market, they probably could have other job opportunities with similar salaries and fringe benefits or even better than UNRWA.

I.   Training Courses

1.   Respondents' continuance, normative and total organizational commitment had significant differences, at α = 0.05 level, due to the number of training courses they got during their current job, while their perception f leadership style was insignificant different.

2.   While the researcher anticipated a positive relationship between the number of training courses staff member got and the level of organizational commitment, at least in the continuance commitment where staff members should have perceived the training course as an investment in their career with UNRWA, and thus would consider leaving job as costly option, the study concluded negative correlation. This could be explained as staff do not consider these training course as relevant and beneficial to their development and enhancement of their knowledge, skills and attitude. It also, could be referred to the bureaucratic system UNRWA have, that won't allow a new knowledge gained through training to be implemented.

6.2   Recommendations

Based on the study analysis, findings and conclusions, the researcher proposes the following recommendations:

A.   UNRWA

1.   Considering the OD process launched recently, UNRWA Administration may pay attention to the leadership behaviour that supervisors exercise. Supervisors should be aware of the effect of such essential management factor on their subordinates' organizational commitment. Though, UNRWA have recently inaugurated a leadership training programme, it may develop a succinct training strategy including assessment needs, selection, designing, delivering and post training assessment of implication in the real work environment. UNRWA may adopt 360-degree evaluation system, to all participants in leadership training programmes.

2.   UNRWA might introduce changes and improvements to its rules, regulations and instructions, so as pave the road for supervisors to exhibit transformational leadership style more than transactional one, which will ultimately affect the organizational commitment, positively. This change should be part of, and merit with, the launched OD initiative.

3.   Though it was not dominant leadership style (46.1%), considering its negative impact on organizational commitment, among other consequences, UNRWA supervisors should minimize further the passive avoidant behaviours. Other studies had provided that this style should not exceed 13% for effective leaders.

4.   Additional efforts should be exerted to build a trust, empowerment of the staff, participative decision-making approach, to enhance the attachment of staff, and desire, to remain and excel in their jobs. Development of new evaluation system, where it allows subordinate staff to participate in setting of the departmental objectives, recognizing and rewarding personal contributions, could be a good instrument of augmentation of the affective and normative commitment of staff members.

5.   Maintaining two-way channels of communication to resolve any conflict or grievances that arose due to organizational norms and individual expectations changing over the time, to improve the feeling of obligation to stay with UNRWA.

6.   UNRWA might re-consider "rank-in-person" together with "rank-in-post" approaches. The study showed that many staff members acquired higher qualifications, probably higher than those required for their current posts, though highly qualified staff showed lower level of commitment. These qualifications could be addressed through additional incentive plans other than salary, such as "certificate allowance" for all staff, regardless of the posts' requirements.

7.   UNRWA may invest and appreciate the internal experience of its staff members. Advertisement of posts internally before going outside would constitute a good stake of such strategy, while giving an additional weight factor for internal experience, should other post requirements be equal, is a second pillar of it. A succession plan would be an excellent supplement.

B.   Literature

The empirical part of the study provided a ground of proposing minor amendment to the Full Range leadership model. It is recommended to move management-by-exception (passive) leadership style to sit be with laissez-faire leadership style, as part of passive/avoidant style.

C.   Further studies

1.   The study used only one leadership style scale (MLQ) and another one for organizational commitment (OCQ). This study could be repeated utilizing more than one scale, aiming, among other objectives, at identifying other leadership styles, as appropriate.

2.   It is recommended that other studies split UNRWA staff into supervisors and subordinates groups. Thereafter, comparing the supervisors' self rating with their subordinate's perception of leadership style.

3.   The study found that leadership style may not be related to how employees feel about having to stay with UNRWA. Rather, continuance commitment is more likely related to transferability of skills and alternative employment opportunities. Therefore, it is recommended to investigate deeply the factors affecting continuance commitment in UNRWA.

4.   Leadership style and organizational commitment could be studied, from a comparison perspective; either among UNRWA five fields, or between UNRWA and other similar organizations.

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Appendices

Appendix – 1 : A brief note on UNRWA and its OD Imitative

Background (adopted form UNRWA publications)

Following the 1948 Arab-Israeli conflict, UNRWA, the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East, was established by United Nations General Assembly resolution 302 (IV) of 8 December 1949 to carry out direct relief and works programmes for Palestine refugees. The Agency began operations on 1 May 1950. It is unique organ of the United Nations programmes, in terms of its long-standing commitment to one group of refugees and its contributions to the welfare and human development of four generations of Palestine refugees. Originally envisaged as a temporary organization, the Agency has gradually adjusted its programmes to meet the changing needs of the refugees. UNRWA, has been delivering its services in times of relative calm in the Middle East, and in times of hostilities. It has fed, housed and clothed tens of thousands of fleeing Palestinian refugees and at the same time educated and given health care to hundreds of thousands of them.

Today, UNRWA is the main provider of basic services - education, health, relief and social services - to over 4.4 million registered Palestine refugees in the Middle East. Its operational biennium budget in the years 2008-09 amounted at $700 million dollars (UNRWA Biennium Budget, 2008-09).

Organizational Development (adapted from UNRWA's OD documents, 2006)

In 2007, UNRWA had launched a comprehensive Organizational Development (OD) initiative designed to strengthen and sustain the Agency's capacity for programme management and delivery. Embracing a holistic and comprehensive approach, OD is a continuous process of reflection, learning and action. The strengths and weaknesses of the Agency were identified by reviewing various external reports and internal studies and by engaging consultants to carry out a rapid organizational assessment (ROA). OD process was linked with Medium-Term Plan (MTP) to increase the resources for, and to strengthen the quality of, services rendered for Palestine refugees. The aim of the OD process is to ensure sustained and strengthened internal capacity for operations management and delivery.

The MTP will now evolve into a more comprehensive strategic plan for the Agency. This will take some time, but the aim is to have a multi-year revolving strategic plan that will incorporate: Effective managers, assuming responsibility, taking decisions and being accountable are at the heart of OD initiative

OD relation with MTP
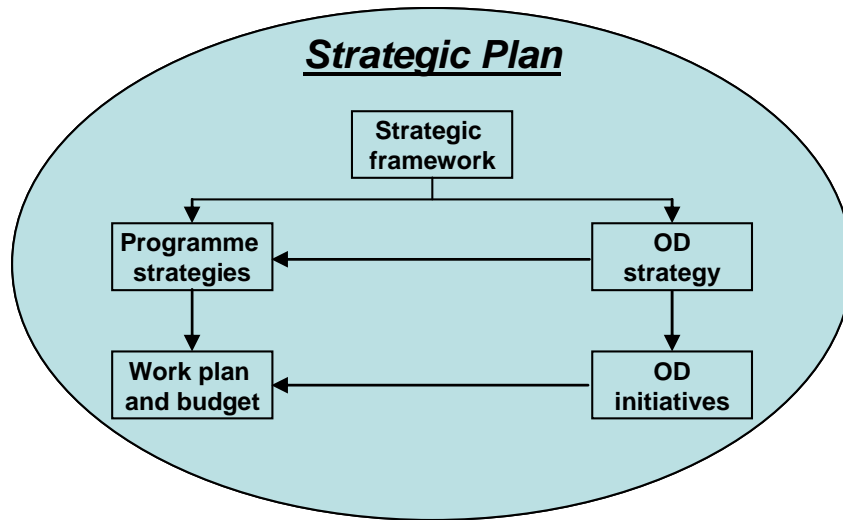
The need to strengthen UNRWA's leadership & management is recognized among stakeholders and donors – and, most crucially – throughout the Agency itself. Specifically, there must be a clearer and stronger understanding of what management is—the role of managers at various levels in the hierarchy, the alignment of authority with responsibility, the degree of delegation and decision making required at the various levels.

If UNRWA is to be transformed into a modern, efficient and successful entity, the Agency needs to develop more effective leadership and management capabilities than it currently possesses. Also, "leadership and management" comprise a blend of knowledge, skills and behaviours that can be clarified and acquired through facilitated learning. Furthermore, endeavours to enhance leadership and management should proceed in tandem with the process of organizational development. As the Agency's structures, processes and programmes are developed, its managers should be empowered with the capability to keep

As organizational roles are clarified and strategic approaches to programming, prioritization and resource mobilization are developed; managers should be examples of elements relevant to both processes.

Organizational Development Strategy
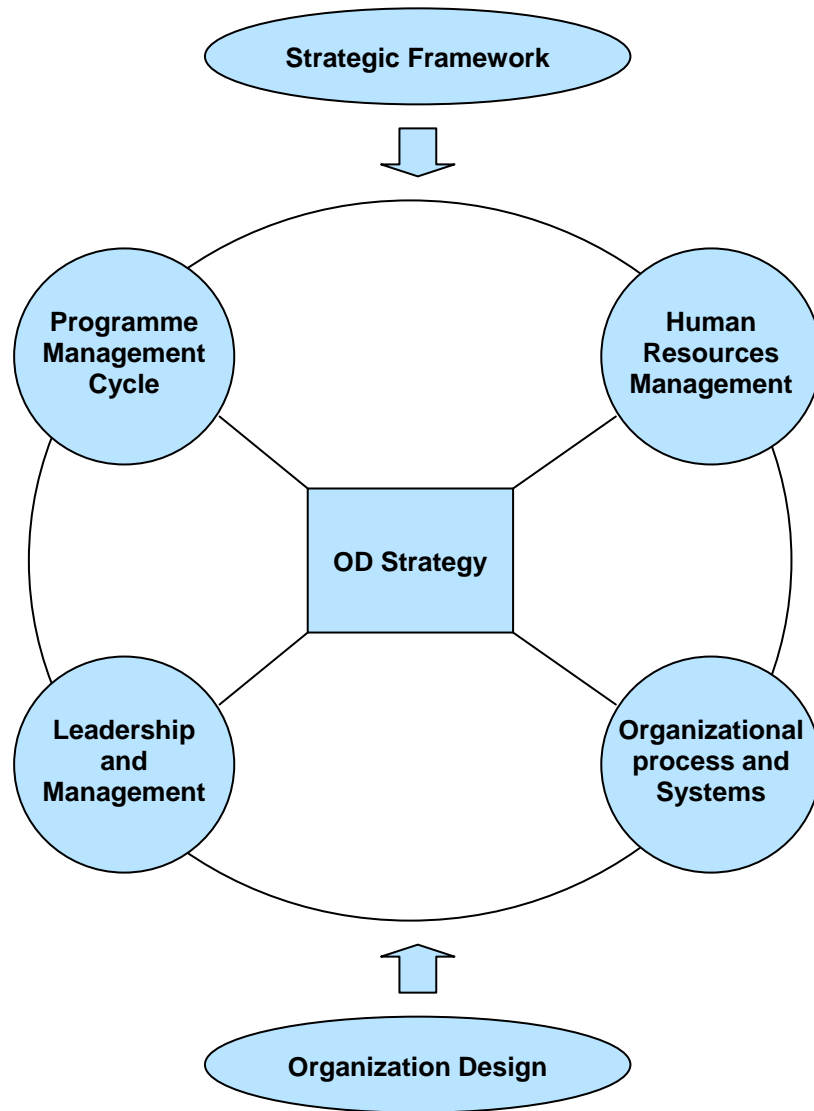
This lever is particularly important because many other initiatives, but especially those touching on any aspect of Human Resources Management (HRM) or Project Management Cycle (PMC), are affected by the capacity to strengthen the management culture. Indeed, the effectiveness of the entire set of OD initiatives depends on the assumption that managers want to lead and manage and will assume these responsibilities.

Appendix -2 Involvement of UNRWA Administration on the study

Summary of Email exchange with Director of Executive Office

From: KINGSLEY-NYINAH, Michael
Sent: Tuesday, July 01, 2008 3:46 PM
To: SAQER, Hassan
Cc: XENAKI, Chloe
Subject: RE: MBA Thesis

Please go ahead. Good luck and best regards.

Michael .

From: KINGSLEY-NYINAH, Michael
Sent: Monday, July 14, 2008 7:09 AM
To: SAQER, Hassan
Cc: XENAKI, Chloe
Subject: RE: Thesis Proposal

Dear Hassan,
It was a pleasure to meet you yesterday and to enjoy your company for a short while. As promised, I sent the attached message to FoDs yesterday, so the way is now clear for you to proceed with your work. On behalf of the Commissioner-General, I wish you all the very best of luck. You can always count on our support. Thank you and best wishes.

Michael

From: KINGSLEY-NYINAH, Michael
Sent: Sunday, July 13, 2008 6:58 PM
To: COOK, Richard; SHENSTONE, Barbara; DAVIES, Roger; MOUMTZIS, Panos; GING, John
Cc: DELEU, Pascal; Nordahl, Christer; WHITE, Thomas; GILLIAM, Lisa; BERTHELSEN, Sven; MOUSSA, Cornelia; Cronin, Patrick; HURT, Robert; CLARET, Francesc; XENAKI, Chloe
Subject: Masters thesis: "The effects of perceived leadership style on organizational commitment"

Dear colleagues,
Hassan Othman Saquer is an HQG (HRD) colleague preparing a masters thesis on the a/m subject. As part of the data collection process required by his thesis, he will be asking field area staff to complete online questionnaires in the coming weeks. Grateful you and your staff provide Hassan with the support and assistance he needs. Thank you and best regards.
Michael

From: SAQER, Hassan
Sent: Sunday, July 13, 2008 6:31 PM
To: KINGSLEY-NYINAH, Michael
Dear Mr. Kingsley,

First, let me express my respect and admiration for the incessant support you give all over the way; with such charismatic approach, I believe, the Agency can promote it assets-staff.
Attached, please find a copy the study proposal, for your kind attention. It is worth noting that the questionnaire will be build up in a close-end question style, where it doesn't make a room for personal views - open questions - of the staff on their supervisors. Once I finalize the questionnaire, I can share it with you.
With respect, Hassan Saqer.

Appendix -3 Email exchange with Professors Gardner and Vecchio

A. With Prof. William Gardner

From: Gardner, William [mailto:william.gardner@ttu.edu]
Sent: Wednesday, June 11, 2008 6:03 PM
To: SAQER, Hassan
Subject: RE: Thesis

Hello Hassan,

Professor Vecchio is giving you sound advice in recommending that you utilize "Transactional and Transformational" Leadership Theory (more commonly know as the **full range leadership theory**) over the Hersey and Blanchard theory. For a critical review of the later theory that highlights its shortcomings see Graeff (1997). For a couple of key articles that summarize the strengths of the FRL theory, see the following articles: (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Avolio, 2003; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

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I hope this is helpful. Best of luck with your thesis.
Bill
===========================
William L. Gardner
Area of Management Coordinator
Rawls Professor in Leadership
Director, Institute for Leadership Research
Rawls College of Business
Texas Tech University
15th and Flint
Lubbock, TX
Office Phone: (806) 742-1055
Cell Phone: (806) 773-9541
Fax: (806) 742-2308, E-Mail: william.gardner@ttu.edu

From: SAQER, Hassan [mailto:H.SAQER@UNRWA.ORG]
Sent: Wednesday, June 11, 2008 3:48 AM
To: Gardner, William
Subject: FW: Thesis

Dear Professor Gardner
I have been referred by Prof. Vecchio, hoping that you can help me.

I'm doing a thesis on "Effects of Leadership Style on the Organizational Commitment". I've been requested to evaluate "Hersey and Blanchard", 1984, model, and utilize instead "Transformational and Transactional" Theory. Your views/article on the advantages of the latter model over the precedent one would be highly appreciated.

Thank you in advance,
 With respect,
Hassan Saqer

B. With Prof. Robert Vecchio

-----Original Message-----
From: rvecchio@nd.edu [mailto:rvecchio@nd.edu]
Sent: Tuesday, June 10, 2008 8:41 PM
To: SAQER, Hassan
Subject: Re: Thesis

Hello Hassan,

Thank you for your interest in my research. I am not the best person to contact regarding these variables. I recommend contacting Professor Bruce Avoliio at the University of Nebraska and Prof. William Gardner at Texas Tech University.

Best regards,
Prof. Vecchio

Quoting "SAQER, Hassan" <H.SAQER@UNRWA.ORG>:

Dear Prof. Vecchio,

Kindly note that my name is Hassan Saqer, a Palestinian national living in Gaza Stip. I am doing a research on "The effects of the perceived Leadership Style on the Organizational Commitment", as part of MBA programme thesis.

I saw your respectful name in some articles and wondered if you can help me.

I am planning to target Transformational and Transactional vis Liaises faire styles and interested mainly on how this approach is distinct from the previous approaches - situational. Your views would constitute an honor for my research.

Thank you in advance,
With respect,
Hassan Saqer
Gaza Strip.

<u>**Appendix -4**</u>
<u>**Data Collection Instrument**</u>

Part 1: Demographic Characteristics

1. Place of Work / Geographical location

Gaza ☐　Jordan ☐　SAR ☐　Lebanon ☐　West Bank ☐

2. Department (where you work)

EDU	☐	Health	☐	Social Services	☐
HRD	☐	Finance	☐	Engineering	☐
Audit	☐	Legal	☐	External Relations	☐
ComGen	☐	Directors' Office			☐

Logistics (including IT, PLD, General Services) ☐

3. Gender

Male ☐　Female ☐

4. Age

From 20 to less than 30 years ☐　From 30 to Less than 40 years ☐
From 40 to less than 50 years ☐　50 years and above ☐

5. Marital Status

Married ☐　Single ☐　Widow ☐　Divorced ☐

6. Family Size

1-3 ☐　4-5 ☐　6-7 ☐　8 and above ☐

7. Academic Qualification

High School ☐　Diploma ☐　BA ☐　Post Graduate ☐

8. Experience with UNRWA

Less than 5 years ☐　From 5 to less than 10 years ☐
From 10 years to less than 15 ☐　15 years and more ☐

9. Job Grade

5-8 ☐　9-12 ☐　13-16 ☐　17-20 ☐

10. Training courses you got during your current job

No courses ☐　1-3 ☐　4-6 ☐　7 and more ☐

Part -2: Leadership Style

This part of the questionnaire is to describe your supervisor's leadership style, from your point of view. The rating scale consists of 10 degrees, where number 10 represents extreme strongly agree, while 1 shows your completely disagreement with the item. The following example explains this approach:

Example:

S/No	Item	Rating 1 (lower) 10(Higher)
#	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	5

You perceive that your supervisor's leadership style matches this paragraph moderately, thus put number 5, and so on.

Dominant Leadership Style

S/N	Item	Rating 1 - 10
	The person I am rating:	
1.	Provides staff with assistance in exchange of their efforts.	
2.	Re-examine critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate.	
3.	Fails to interfere until problems become serious.	
4.	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.	
5.	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise.	
6.	Talks about their most important values and believes.	
7.	Is absent when needed.	
8.	Seeks different perspectives when solving problems.	
9.	Talks optimistically about the future.	
10.	Instils pride in staff for being associated with him/her	
11.	Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.	
12.	Waits for things to go wrong before taking action.	
13.	Talks enthusiastically when setting goals and objectives to be accomplished.	
14.	Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	
15.	Spends time teaching and coaching staff.	

Dominant Leadership Style (Continued)

16.	Makes clear what staff can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.	
17.	Shows that s/he is a firm believer in "if it not broke, don't fix it".	
18.	Sacrifices his/her self-interest for the good of the group.	
19.	Treats me as an individual rather that just as a member of a group.	
20.	Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action.	
21.	Have leadership skills that build my respect.	
22.	Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures.	
23.	Considers the moral and ethical consequences of his / her decisions.	
24.	Keeps track of staff's mistakes.	
25.	Displays sense of power and confidence.	
26.	Articulates a compelling vision of the future.	
27.	Directs staff attention toward failures to meet standards.	
28.	Avoids making decisions	
29.	Consider staff's individual special needs, abilities, and aspirations.	
30.	Gets staff to look at problems from different angles.	
31.	Helps staff to improve and develop their abilities and skills.	
32.	Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	
33.	Delays responding to urgent questions.	
34.	Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission and supports team spirit.	
35.	Expresses satisfaction when staff meet expectations.	
36.	Shows confidence that goals will be achieved.	

Part -3: Organizational Commitment

This part of the questionnaire is to examine your feeling towards working with UNRWA. Please read carefully and answer each item as better suiting your own views. As in the second part, the rating scale consists of 10 degrees, where number 10 represents strongly agree, while 1 shows your completely disagreement with the paragraph. (same example in paragraph 1, applies).

Organizational Commitment

S/No	Item	Rating 1 - 10
1.	I will be happy if I spend the rest of my career with UNRWA.	
2.	Even if I wanted to, it would be difficult for me to leave this organization.	
3.	I feel obliged to remain working here.	
4.	I feel that if UNRWA has a problem, it is my problem as well.	
5.	If I decided to leave UNRWA right now, it would be too disruptive to my life.	
6.	I don't feel that it would be right for me to leave my workplace now, even if it were to my advantage to do so.	
7.	I feel as if I belong to the "family" in this organization	
8.	It is as much necessity as desire that keeps me working here.	
9.	If I left my job now, I would not feel guilty.	
10.	I feel emotionally attached to this organization.	
11.	I feel that if I left, there would be too few job opportunities available to me.	
12.	I don't feel this organization deserves all my commitment.	
13.	It means a great deal to me, personally, to work with UNRWA.	
14.	The lack of available alternatives would be one of the few negative consequences of leaving UNRWA.	
15.	I have a sense of obligation to my colleagues that prevents me from leaving UNRWA.	
16.	My work with UNRWA does not give me a strong sense of belonging.	
17.	The fact that leaving UNRWA would require considerable personal sacrifice is one of the reasons I continue to work here.	
18.	I feel that I owe a great deal to UNRWA	
19.	I feel sorrow when talking with others about my job.	
20.	I continue to work with UNRWA for the many advantages I find compared with other employers.	

Appendix – 5

List of Jurors

Judge Name	Place	Specialization
Prof. Majed El-Farra	Islamic University	PhD, Management
Prof. Yousef Ashour	Islamic University	PhD, Management
Dr. Sami Abu Ross	Islamic University	PhD, Management
Dr. Samir Safi	Islamic University	PhD, Statistics
Dr. Saleh Abu Jado	UNRWA HQ Amman	PhD, Psychology-Education.
Dr. Sief Zuraiqi	UNRWA HQ Amman,	PhD, Guidance and Counselling.
Dr. Ahmed Ayyadi	UNRWA, Education Science Faculty, Amman.	PhD, Islamic Economy.
Dr. Ghazi Khader	UNRWA, Education Science Faculty, Amman.	PhD, Total Quality Management.
Dr. Mohammed Tarakhan	UNRWA, Institute of Education.	PhD, Administration Psychology.
Dr. Mohammed El-Zubaidi	Beirut University, Lebanon.	PhD, Arabic Language.
Dr. Naser El-Sa'feen	UNRWA, Education Science faculty, West Bank	PhD, Metal Health.
Dr. Mahmoud Okasha	Al-Azhar University	PhD, Applied Statistics
Dr. Nehya Telbani	Al-Azhar University	PhD, Quality Management
Dr. Jaber Adda'or	Al-Azhar University	PhD, Managerial Accounting.